COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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BY

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To
D. E. M.

PREFACE

At the present time, public secondary commercial education, in response to public desire, is rapidly adjusting its work to meet the changing needs of our social and economic systems. As a result, the public secondary schools are setting standards that are to dominate secondary commercial instruction. Recognition of the fact that commercial education has a definite place in the public vocational program has resulted in many questions concerning the definition of the field for which commercial education should train, concerning the efficiency of current facilities for commercial education, and concerning the range, methods of organization and presentation of commercial work offered.

It is the purpose of this book to analyze such questions as the foregoing, to define commercial education, and to establish fundamental principles by which further progress should be guided.

I am greatly indebted to the late Frank V. Thompson (Superintendent of Schools, Boston) for his inspiration and help in the preparation of certain parts of the work. I want to thank Dean Henry W. Holmes, Professor David Snedden, and Mr. Vierling Kersey for their criticisms. Mr. F. G. Nichols, State Supervisor of Commercial Education, Pennsylvania, has not only been quoted freely but has given helpful suggestions. My greatest indebtedness is to my wife who has aided in many ways in the preparation of the book.

Cloyd H. Marvin

Los Angeles,
August 25, 1922.

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COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION DEFINED AND DESCRIBED

At this time about thirty-six percent of the public high school pupils are enrolled in one or more commercial classes, and about twenty-five percent are definitely following commercial courses. Nor is it likely that such proportions are approximating their final limits for more than eighty-five percent of all the boys and girls that leave our schools from the seventh through the twelfth grades enter commercial pursuits. Because of this constantly developing demand upon education for commerce, writers are advocating — "a greater range of subjects" — "more exact proportion in enrollment of classes" and "different content in subject matter taught." But before advocating any principles it seems well to determine exactly, if possible, those activities of commerce which will enable us to estimate correctly the purposes of commercial education.

Commerce is defined in the dictionary as "the exchange, or buying and selling of commodities, especially the exchange of merchandise on a large scale." The earlier commercial activities of the nation could have been enumerated under such a definition; but the com-

plex development of modern commercial life has led to so high a degree of specialization that it is difficult to limit the present field of commerce by such a statement. Legally considered, the meaning of "commerce" has tended to become more and more inclusive.[1]

On the other hand, economic theory has tended to define "commerce" with greater precision. It is perhaps in the economic definition that the field is best described and its relationship to industry most clearly established.

In economic theory "production" is defined as the creation of utilities. Therefore a process that gives greater utility to any object, by changing its form, by placing it where it is needed, by storing it until needed, or by transferring its possession, is a productive process. Referring now to the definition of commerce given above, it is apparent that commercial activity has to do with certain of these processes and not with others. A closer analysis will establish this relationship more specifically.

The utilities which result from production are of four kinds: form, time, place, and possession utilities.

Form utility is created by changing the form of an article in order to make it more valuable, as in printing a book. The creation of form utilities is an industrial activity and the education which prepares boys and girls to take their part in such work is termed "trade training" or "industrial education."

[1] The meaning of "commerce" as used in the Constitution of the United States is interpreted by the Supreme Court to be much more inclusive now than formerly. American and English Encyclopedia of Law. Volume VI, page 217 ff.

Time utility is created by storing or holding a commodity until it is needed and then supplying the demand for it, as in keeping a book in stock until purchased. Place utility is created by transporting a commodity to the place where it is needed, as in shipping the book from the printery to the book-store where it becomes available. Possession utility is created by the actual exchange of property, as in a transfer of ownership of the book which makes it of value to the purchaser. From this analysis it is clear that commercial activity creates time, place, and possession utilities.

These utilities are grouped by many writers under the term "distribution," which is not altogether a felicitous term, as it has a variety of meanings.[1]

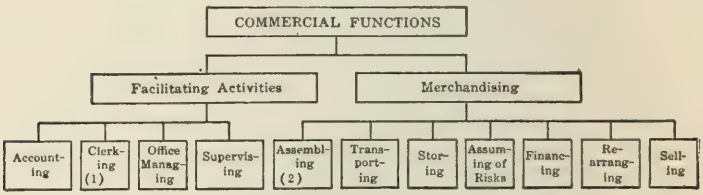
If used, it must be clearly understood that it refers to the distribution of economic goods to those places where they are to be used, held until wanted, and furnished in the desired quantities, as well as to the activities that facilitate such transactions.

But as commercial education must prepare youth for participation in one or more of the several specific activities of commerce, the more satisfactory way of describing the commercial field is to interpret the theoretical definition in terms of the functions of commerce. These may be grouped under two heads — "facilitating activities of business" and "merchandising activities" as shown in the diagram on the following page.

[1] The use of the term "distribution" in economic theory is contradictory to the above usage. It means the assignment of goods for ownership. "It does not deal with the exchange or transfer of goods but with the condition of things following exchange and transfer." Ely, Richard T. "Property and Contract in their Relation to the Distribution of Wealth." Vol. I, page 1.

This functional depiction of the activities of commerce is more satisfactory for the purposes of commercial education than an attempt to describe the constantly increasing number of involved commercial activities. Commerce has developed from the simple office, small scale production, and intimate personal apprenticeship relation between employer and employee

DIAGRAM I



(1) Includes "checking." (2) Includes "buying."

to the modern complex office, and the highly organized "stores" and commercial "concerns." There has been an intricate recasting of commercial organization and procedure. Not only have activities increased in number and in range, but the methods employed in them have undergone similar changes, so that current commercial activity is as complex as the modern life which it seeks to supply with commodities.

What kind of an education will prepare for these highly complex commercial activities? Commercial education has been developed from many different standpoints and has unfortunately been closely associated with academic education. "Long association with the academic department of education, the antagonistic attitude of the academic educator, the organization of commercial courses on an academic rather than a vocational

basis have misled many into the belief that commercial education is not vocational."[1]

It has already been shown that commercial activities contribute to the well-being of the society which undertakes them, and that those engaged in commercial activities are producers; therefore it follows that "the controlling purpose (of education for commerce) is to fit for profitable employment" and that such education is vocational education.

But even though it is vocational education, commercial education is not yet fully defined, for it differs from certain other forms of vocational education. Referring to Diagram I it is seen that commercial activities include elements that give them an emphasis different from that of industrial activities. Commercial activities deal with men. "Men meet not only as units in a business organization, — as colleagues, subordinates, and superiors, — but also in the delicate personal relations of buyer and seller."[2]

On the other hand industry deals, more largely, with things — the materials that sooner or later are to be the bases of commercial transactions. The problems of industry are solved, largely, by chemical, mechanical, and electrical science; those of commercial activities by psychological and sociological science. These factors differentiate commercial education from industrial or other forms of vocational education.

Modern commercial activity has an increasingly important social purpose. It is often said that commercial

[1] Federal Board for Vocational Education 1919 Bulletin, No. 31. "Organization and Administration of Commercial Education." Page 11.

[2] Shaw, A. W. "An Approach to Business Problems." Page 5.

activities are in their very nature individualistic and ought to continue to be so, even in the modern complex society, but governmental regulations, methods of coöperative management, forms of industrial democracy, as well as the developing system of social ethics refute this tenet of the passing laissez-faire philosophy of commerce. The history of such commercial institutions as Wanamakers, Filenes, the Weinstock Lubin Company, the National City Bank, the Old Colony Trust Company and numerous others, shows that a commercial career, to be successful under current conditions must be dominated by the clarifying social objectives which serve as a final justification of any claim to the respect or support of the community in which it exists.

To be sure economic incentives for the establishment of business are as much existent at this time as when the first interchange of goods or commodities took place, but the increasing interdependence of social units has made necessary the establishment of more definite and exact rules governing commercial transactions. It has been said that heretofore commerce has been self centered and has functioned solely for the benefit of the owner or owners of the particular activities. While no commercial transaction has ever taken place except for the benefit of the individuals participating, commerce has always been a social activity. Its social functions are now being more clearly determined, until service is very largely the dominating motive, and the public attitude is rapidly approaching a definite philosophy of the social functions of business. This finds its expression in three fundamental objectives — "greater efficiency in production," "greater justice in distribution," and "greater wisdom in consumption." These objectives are but the

interpretation of the responsibility of commercial activity as designated by the democratic ideals of the nation. A democracy cannot exist unless its members are productive; it cannot be permanently stable unless there be a just distribution of that which is produced, nor will efficient production or equitable distribution avail, unless there be a wisdom in consumption. Commercial activities, as the channels of exchange, are increasingly obliged not only to interpret correctly the part played by industry, but to contribute their share to the development of the democratic society in which they exist. That commerce is meeting this obligation is indicated by the change in the recognition of the place of commercial activities. More and more, bankers, railroad executives, business men from all branches of commerce are awarded a place in the community that society formerly assigned only to professional men — educators, lawyers, physicians, ministers — who were rendering a social service. Nor is the change limited to those holding highly responsible positions in the community. Large corporations, department stores, as well as smaller business houses are being forced to recognize that all employees must be accredited with their share of the service rendered. The small merchant is at present least recognized within this phase of social ethics for his work has been stigmatized as simply a self-seeking mode of making a living.

Commercial education, then, must enable those seeking training to prepare definitely and adequately for the performance of specific activities in the production of time, place, and possession utilities, and must at the same time cause them to recognize the ethical and social significance of such activities. The controlling purposes

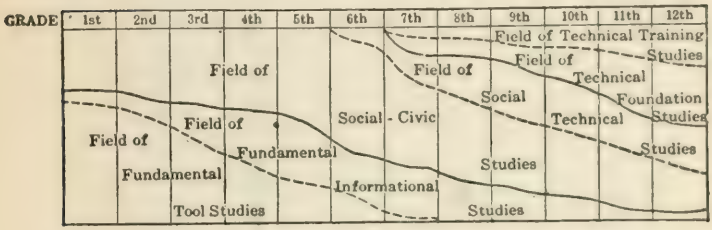
of commercial education have not heretofore been particularized in a degree to make them especially significant in the direction of such education. Commercial education has aimed at vaguely defined discipline, — indefinite character building, and technical skill for clerkships. This has been particularly true of secondary education for commerce. Out of the 127 public high school commercial teachers asked to signify the aim or aims that dominated their work, 69 answered that their courses were "to give a general preparation for a business career," 34 answered "to furnish the technique requisite for specific business (clerical) positions," 20 answered "to give such training as will look toward the students' later occupying business positions of responsibility," and 4 answered "to train for the needs of large business organization and a resulting specialization of occupation.[1]

Such a study shows the lack of specific aims which are necessary in carrying out any system of vocational education. Again, from the answers, little or no emphasis is placed upon the social basis of commercial education.

The correct analysis of commercial activity not only limits the field for commercial education but shows that commercial education must be more inclusive than specific technical training. It must equip its students with the general principles in which commercial activities find their bases. This necessitates the inclusion of a great range of subjects and a different emphasis in the work offered. The following diagram shows the relationship of technical training to the entire body of instruction for commercial education.

[1] Koos, L. V. "Administration of Secondary School Units." Page 155.

DIAGRAM II



The only education for commerce that will suffice is one which will enable the pupil to order his life's activities in a manner especially significant to himself and useful to the society in which he lives. When considered from the standpoint that individual development is development for participation in social and economic activities, commercial education must seek to accomplish the following aims:

It must make possible the proper physical foundation for life's activities.

It must furnish a background for an appreciation of the finer attributes of life.

It must create ability and desire to join in the common work of the community.

It must prepare for, and give a knowledge of, the social and economic values of a commercial vocation.

It must train for, or give a basis of, a technical commercial occupation.

These aims, interrelated, each in proportion as it contributes to the needs of the individuals whom education for commerce must serve, will determine the type of commercial education to be presented.

CHAPTER II

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CERTAIN TENDENCIES IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

Commercial education has developed to meet the demand for trained workers, a demand which has increased constantly with the changing economic and social systems of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Although its growth has been retarded by traditional ideas of education, by social prejudices, and by lack of coöperation with business, it is, at this time, beginning to establish aims and to realize standards that make it of practical value to the business world. It is beginning also to formulate certain constructive policies which will ultimately modify the ideals which govern the commerce of the nation.

The early commercial activities were concerned with transportation, for the nation was a producer and exporter of raw products. All business activity was simple, unorganized, and personal in form. Ideals were narrow and individualistic, and competition was marked by shrewdness. With the Civil War period, which hastened the newer developments following the industrial revolution, new industrial activity came into existence and commercial life assumed a different form. Commercial activity grew more complex, more organized, and developed a more scientific as well as a more impersonal form. Ideals became broader and more

universal, and competition tended to over-emphasize the importance of productive power. The nation turned to manufacturing rather than to shipping and with the rise of the new industries there was a gradual decline of the merchant marine. A new commercialism dominated the era.

Since the productive power of the nation depended upon the number of skilled producers the demand for a greater number of better trained citizens constantly increased. Industry asked for labor, and commerce, especially, demanded a greater productive force in the clerical as well as in the executive occupations. Not only were more workers required, but higher standards were set for those participating in business.

Along with these changes, certain other factors affected commercial development. The long apprentice system, which formerly had fitted the youth for his technical work, gradually declined under the new methods of production, for it was slow, inefficient, and cumbersome, hence much too costly. Moreover, under the new era of specialization and subdivision of labor the old time journeyman was no longer required. The demand for workers in the industries and in commerce caused a great rush from rural to urban life, and the increasing number of untrained workers thus obtained emphasized the need of facilities for training. The congestion of population in industrial and commercial centers and new standards of life resulting from this movement caused the waning of educative influences, home life and church training, which had been positive factors in the upbuilding of the earlier community. Social consciousness, asserting itself in order to ameliorate evils that were arising, enacted child labor laws and compulsory school

attendance laws. These deprived the youth of the only opportunities available for early commercial training. Thus factor after factor increased the demand for some agency of technical training, and to meet this need, methods of education were modified and schools established to include prevocational and vocational training.

The aims, methods, and ideals of this commercial education, since they had sprung from economic and social conditions, were modified as these conditions changed. There were no fixed standards of educational values except those set by the various commercial pursuits as going concerns and sanctioned by the society in which they existed. Thus the development of commercial education following these rapidly changing standards has tended from the simple training to the more complex. Beginning as a private enterprise, it has gradually grown out of this dominance and has entered a period of public control. Beginning with a very limited training in clerical studies, it has developed to include instruction in the several broad fields of commercial activity. Beginning as a special class in the regular classical high school, it has been segregated into separate departments and schools of commerce. Beginning in opposition to the apprentice system, and hence opposed by commercial enterprise, it has established coöperation between the schools and commerce. Beginning as a phase of the regular work of the public day school, it has extended to include evening classes and part-time work. Beginning, in common with other vocational education, with a laissez faire policy in regard to the lives of those it trained, it is now committed to vocational guidance. The facts on which the foregoing generalizations are based will be set forth in the following discussion.

From Private Dominance to Public Control

Schools devoting their time exclusively to business training began their history in this country as private ventures, and although they are of comparatively recent origin, there is much question as to who was the founder of the first business training school. It is very likely that this confusion arises because, like all inventions, the school originated to meet a very definite demand and the same stimulus acting under very much the same circumstances caused several like ventures to be established about the same time. The first business training was offered by "academies" and "private schools" in the first and second decades of the nineteenth century. These schools introduced a meagre training for clerkships. This training almost wholly disappeared with the passing of the academies, and not until the next decade when private "business colleges" were organized does it reappear. It is held that the first school of this type was established by R. M. Bartlett in 1834.[1]

Again from the reports of the United States Commissioner of Education it seems that Dolber's Commercial College organized in the City of New York in 1835, was the first institution in this country exclusively devoted to commercial education.[2]

But this question is not within the purpose of this study. Beginnings are mentioned to show that the business college developed as a private enterprise, and arose out of a need for clerical help. "This institution is

[1] Packard, L. S. "Commercial Education," an address in the Practical Age of January 1897. Page 5.

[2] Crissy, J. O. "The Evolution of Business Education," National Education Association Proceedings, 1899, Page 1020.

peculiarly American; nothing exactly like it is known in other countries. It embodies the defects and excellences of the American character, and typifies in itself a certain stage in our development. Its almost spontaneous origin, its rapid and wide diffusion, its rough adaption of primitive material to the satisfying of immediate and pressing needs, its utter disregard of all save the direct answer to current demands, and then gradually its recognition of present inadequacy, and its determination toward broader, fuller usefulness, these characteristics of the commercial college mark it as essentially the product of a young, eager, and gradually maturing people." [1]

The first teachers of bookkeeping, who are really the pioneers of our present business-college system, were not moved simply to open a profession for themselves, but to carry on a needed work. In the language of one of them, " it was at that time impossible to learn bookkeeping without getting into business, and impossible to get into business without having learned bookkeeping, and so the first business college began as between a man who wanted to know something in order to advance his own interests, and another man who was able to impart that knowledge and willing to do it for a consideration." [2]

The development of the business-college system of commercial education falls into three distinct periods, the experimental period, the monopolistic period, and the modern period. From the time of the first private business college until about 1850 there were a score of such

[1] James, Edmund J. " Commercial Education," Monograph for St. Louis Exposition 1904.

[2] Packard, L. S. " The Evolution of Business Colleges," National Education Proceedings, 1893, Page 768.

schools established in the various cities of the United States, and more than thirty were in existence by 1860, all of which passed through the Civil War and Reconstruction periods. In the decade following 1860 more than fifty new private business colleges were founded to meet the demands of a commerce which, following the war, was reorganizing and increasing.

The " colleges " founded prior to 1860 were organized to offer a meagre clerical training to those wishing to enter minor positions as clerks and bookkeepers. There were no text books. The subject matter was dictated from the experience of the instructor, and the equipment was usually a single room having a few chairs and a desk. Only the unusual demand for clerical training could have held this early work together, it was so poorly organized and incompletely presented. If the teacher were well acquainted with the community and the methods employed in the several business houses, the work had less of an experimental character.

More harmful to the cause of the commercial colleges than the lack of trained instructors, or of equipment, was the fact that the aims of business training were too often defeated by too keen a desire on the part of the management of the colleges to make money. Characteristic of the second period of development, beginning about the middle of the fifties was the attempt of " energetic and resourceful men to establish chains of business schools in a number of cities throughout the country." [1]

H. B. Bryant and H. D. Stratton formed a partnership which included James W. Lusk, and established the first Bryant and Stratton Business College in 1853, and

[1] Cyclopedia of Education, Volume II, Page 144.

out of this organization grew the " chain of colleges " which was the most important of the several like organizations attempted. It was the policy of this firm to establish colleges in each city of the United States having a population of over ten thousand inhabitants, and to place in charge of these, young men, who acted as managers and received a share of the profits of the particular school under their direction. These schools were provided with uniform text books, and a " scholarship " purchased in one school was honored at any time in any one of the Bryant and Stratton Colleges throughout the United States. This policy shows the attempt to monopolize the field of commercial education. " Bryant and Stratton determined to crush all competitors and formed a perpetual partnership which was to extend to their executors."[1] Dissension, however, sprang up among the several local partners. The policy of the main firm was repudiated, and shortly before the death of Mr. Stratton local partnerships were terminated. Although these private educational activities of the period tended toward a monopoly, plans for a complete monopoly were never fully realized. Several minor systems as well as several independent schools persisted. The monopolistic endeavor of the period, however, did establish uniform aims, methods, and ideals for commercial education.

The modern period of development, extending from the early nineties, has seen the standardization, under the principle of private gain, of all work offered in business colleges. This had led to many limitations in the training for business and is directly responsible for the crit-

[1] Herrick, Chessman A. " The Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education." Page 185.

icism that the function of the commercial college has been conceived in too limited a way, even by the most progressive managers. There have been some attempts to expand the aims and methods of these schools to meet present demands, to recognize the necessity of pedagogical training of the teachers, and to estimate justly the place of the schools as a supplementary form of education, but these attempts have been very limited.[1] In short the aim of the business college, from the earliest part of the period until the present time, has been satisfactory technical training for commercial clerkships.

Just as the work of the " college " has become more or less static, due to some internal readjustments and the necessary intensifying of courses offered, so the expansion of the number of schools has not kept pace with the growing demands. The Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1895 gives an incomplete return of 462 business colleges. This number according to the same authority decreased to 373 in 1900. This decrease is due not only to a depression in business conditions, but to the development of the public-school commercial program. In 1905 the number of business colleges reporting was 529 and in 1910 the records show 541. None of these returns are as complete as the returns of 1915 which give the number of business colleges as 843. Using these returns as a basis we find in the last two decades only about seventy-five percent increase in the number of these institutions as compared with an increase of several hundred percent in the number of public schools offering commercial training.

This modern period of development shows that the work of the commercial college is self limiting. Society,

[1] James, Edmund J. " Commercial Education." Page 9.

recognizing that the activity of a commercial personnel with only a limited training is too costly, is demanding broader and broader training of those entering commercial pursuits. The private business college, conducted for gain, can offer only the very technical studies, for those offered on any other basis, if added to the regular program of studies, make the work prohibitive in cost; and if offered separately fail for the lack of a clientele. Thus there is a definite check upon the further development of the private business-college type of commercial education.

The last two decades have seen the development of three new types of institutions offering commercial training, the semi-public type, the correspondence school and the corporation school. The Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus and kindred institutions have thousands of students enrolled in evening commercial courses. It is their aim to conduct the classes so that the pupils bear only the expense of the instruction. Several corporations, realizing the value of preliminary instruction for both the employee and employer, have established classes in different phases of commercial work. In 1907 the Larkin Company of Buffalo, New York, organized a most effective system for training office workers. The apprenticeship school of the Southern Pacific (Railway) Company was organized about this same time and was one of the first companies in the United States to adopt an orderly systematic scheme for the development of executive talent through a definite training program. The training system of the Lakeside Press, R. R. Donelley and Sons Company, Chicago, was established in 1908. The length of the training period with the company depends upon

the exact line of work selected. The training work undertaken by the National City Bank represents the development of the corporation class in financial institutions. About 1909 the National Retail Drygoods Association recognized the value of the work done in the private school of salesmanship established in Boston by Mrs. Lucinda W. Prince, and determined to aid it. With this coöperation the school soon developed its work to include training for educational directors as well as for salesmanship. In 1919 the school was taken over by the Graduate School of Education of Harvard University and greater facilities were added. At the present time several large stores of Boston avail themselves of the services it offers. Under this arrangement the school directs corporation training classes, as well as being a training school for certain types of educational and merchandising executives.

The number of corporation schools has so steadily increased in this country that an agency, "The National Association of Corporation Schools," has been created to aid in developing the best type of work and the use of the most modern methods. The aims of this Association as given in its constitution are: "first, to develop the individual employee to his highest efficiency; second, to increase the efficiency of industry; and third, to influence courses in established educational institutions more favorably toward industry." The diversity of the work before the Association can best be illustrated by mentioning certain of the appointed committees applying directly to commerce:

1. Special training schools.
2. Advertising, selling, and distribution schools.
3. Retail salesmanship schools.

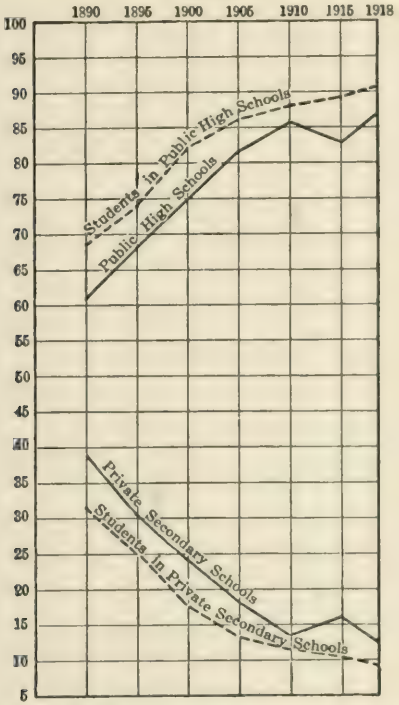
4. Office work schools.
5. Public education.
6. Employment plans.
7. Vocational guidance.
8. Administration and supervision.

The development of public commercial education in this country is but one phase of a larger movement, the growth of public secondary education. As such it has followed the several steps of the larger progress. At an early date "secondary schools established and controlled by private individuals or corporations, more or less supported by public funds, threatened to become the controlling type of secondary school in the United States. This tendency the public school was forced to combat and for more than half a century the outcome of the public high school movement was dubious."[1] But the public high school, more efficient because it was amenable to social control, has gradually forged ahead of the private institution, and at the present time dominates the entire field of secondary training. The present status of public and private secondary schools is shown in the table on the following page.

Public commercial education, which took form at an early date, patterned itself largely upon the aims and standards of the private commercial college. The aims and methods of instruction thus transplanted could not be advantageously adjusted in the existing program of studies, which had its basis in a different system of educational philosophy. In short, commercial education suffered in its transition from the private to the public

[1] Inglis, Alexander, "Principles of Secondary Education." Page 196.

TABLE I



YEAR	Percent of Schools		Percent of Pupils	
	Public	Private	Public	Private
1889 - 1890	60.75	39.25	68.13	31.87
1894 - 1895	68.37	31.63	74.74	25.26
1899 - 1900	75.22	24.78	82.41	17.59
1904 - 1905	82.32	17.68	86.38	13.62
1909 - 1910	85.15	14.85	88.63	11.37
1914 - 1915	83.85	16.15	89.55	10.55
1917 - 1918	87.15	12.85	90.79	9.21

school, and only after battling its way through a very doubtful period of existence, has it finally been able to establish itself. With the clearer definition of the field, the meeting of more exact aims, and the raising of standards, business training in public schools has won

social sanction and with this backing is coming, more and more, to assume the leadership expected of it by the public.

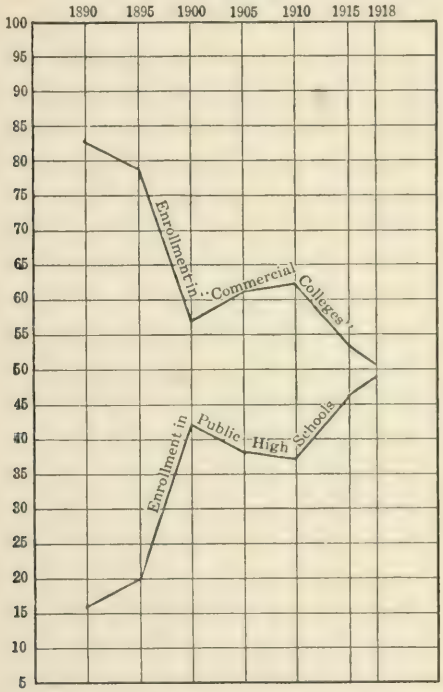
Prior to 1890 private commercial education completely dominated the field of business training. In 1890 about eighty-five percent of the total number of pupils in the commercial courses of public secondary schools and in private commercial colleges were enrolled in the private institutions. By 1895 this lead decreased to less than eighty percent. During the next five years the proportion of commercial students trained in private commercial colleges continued to decrease with the increase in the public high schools, and in 1900 public schools were training almost 43 percent of the students while the private colleges had lost about 30 percent. Reviewing these statistics the Commissioner of Education wrote: "It would seem that the public high school of the near future is to meet the greater part of the demand for instruction in the lower commercial studies, such as business arithmetic, bookkeeping, stenography, commercial geography, and commercial law."[1]

The rapid business development in the next decade gave rise to keen competition among the business colleges and led to increased enrollment. While the number of students in public commercial education increased year by year, its ratio to the number in private institutions decreased somewhat for a few years. In 1910 the enrollment in private colleges was about 62 percent as against 38 percent in public classes. This lead was soon lost, for in 1915 about 47 percent of the pupils were enrolled in the public high schools and one year later about 53 percent.

[1] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1900, Volume II, Page 2470.

The following table shows the relative enrollments in the commercial work of the public secondary schools and of private business colleges during the years 1890 to 1918 inclusive.

TABLE II



YEAR	Percentage of Pupils taking commercial studies	
	Public	Private
1889 - 1890	83.3 (Est.)	16.7
1894 - 1895	79.1	20.9
1899 - 1900	57.1	42.9
1904 - 1905	61.8	38.2
1909 - 1910	62.1	37.9
1914 - 1915	53.2	46.9
1917 - 1918	51.0	49.0

In 1916 for the first time public secondary schools enrolled more students in commercial work than the pri-

vate schools. While the proportionate lead was not held for the year 1917–1918, the general tendency shows that public commercial education, a part of public secondary education, will not only enroll the greater number of students but will set the aims that will dominate the entire field.

From a Limited Training in Clerical Studies to Instruction in the Several Broad Fields of Commercial Activity.

Since the development of the commercial course of study has followed the demands of a rapidly developing commercial activity, it has grown from a very limited course in clerical training to include instruction in the different phases of the several fields of commerce. The early activities of trade, the exporting of enormous amounts of raw materials and the importing of finished products, demanded clerks who could take charge of the shipping and accounting. As a result early schools had bookkeeping as their foundation subject. Soon penmanship was added and a little later navigation.[1] From these first meagre private ventures, the courses have gradually been increased until at the present time our public schools offer not only a complete clerical training but are including courses in salesmanship, banking, advertising, transportation, and business organization.

A study of the catalogues of the earlier institutions shows the changes which have taken place in the course of study of the private "commercial college." One of

[1] The study of navigation was soon dropped because of the rapid decline of our merchant marine.

the earliest gives the following description of its course of study:

> Our course will be almost entirely devoted to the science of double entry bookkeeping in its simplest and most intricate forms, embracing all the practical methods known in business, thereby preparing and familiarizing the students with almost every description of business where the knowledge of the science of accounts is necessary, enabling them to embark with every reasonable hope of success in almost any enterprise, from the small retail grocery and general store to the wholesale shipping, commission, and banking business. This course will also be devoted to the needful accompanying studies, arithmetic and writing, where the younger pupils who are insufficiently advanced will be organized into a separate class, *in which they will be brought to the required standard.* [1]

Another announcement of courses advises that bookkeeping, commercial calculations, penmanship and commercial forms will be taught.[2] In 1854, Gundry's Cincinnati Mercantile College offered in addition to "bookkeeping by double entry," commercial calculations, mercantile correspondence, and practical penmanship, "the studies of commercial law and political economy."[3] "Commercial law" was also included as a part of the "collegiate course" in Bell's Commercial College at about this same time.[4]

Detailed descriptions of these courses were given in order to impress the prospective student with the im-

[1] Catalogue, Martyn's Commercial College, Washington, D. C. (about 1850).

[2] Catalogue, Crittenden's Philadelphia Commercial College. (1853.)

[3] Gundry's Cincinnati Mercantile College. (1854).

[4] Bell's Commercial College, Chicago. (1854).

portance of the school. From them can be determined the ground each course proposed to treat. One course in bookkeeping purports to cover the following:

Mercantile. Stock and Partnership Books of Dealers in General Merchandise, Real Estate, Bank Stock, Railroad Stock, Steamboat Stock, and of Shipping and Commission Houses, with and without auxiliaries, and Compound Company Accounts. This branch comprises more than twenty distinct sets of trade, in examples drawn and closing insolvent, one partner with capital, the other insolvent, both insolvent, or with capital at closing, etc.

Stock and Partnership Books, with auxiliaries particularly adapted to the retail trade in general merchandise; obviating the necessity of daily or frequently posting the numerous daily sales of merchandise, and securing all the advantages of Double Entry, with but little if any more writing than in Single Entry.

Banking. Books of Corporations, with Subscription for Shares of Stock, and payments on account, including General Ledger, Personal Ledger, and other auxiliaries, being the ordinary method.

Exchange and Brokerage, or Private Banking. Books illustrating an extensive business by several new and labor saving methods, in which the Cash Book is also used as a Day Book or Journal for all entries, whether the transactions are cash or otherwise, with several auxiliaries, all managed on the Principles of Double Entry, in use by some of the most extensive Banking offices in the West, and prepared with much care and labor expressly for this school.

Steam Boating. An improved method, becoming very popular in Lake and River Navigation; exhibiting the results of each trip, with Freight, Passage and Cash Books, General Ledger, Crew's Ledger, etc., managed scientifically according to the system of Double Entry.

Mechanics, Lawyers, Physicians, and others, having limited business, Books adapted to their affairs, ensuring all the advantages of Double Entry, and requiring but little writing.

Converting Single Entry into Double Entry. Books in Single Entry closed, and new ones opened in Double Entry; also old ones continued after the change.

Mercantile Accounts, viz.; Forms of Bills of Sale, Invoices, Accounts Sales, Accounts Current, Bills of Lading, Balance Sheets, Reconciling Sheets, Promissory Notes, Drafts, Bills of Exchange, and Notes of Dishonor, with explanations of the nature, use and effect of the same.

Incidental Exercises, Journal Entries on taking in a Partner; ascertaining the Gains or Losses, and the Net Capital or Net Insolvency; Partnership Settlements, etc., being examples drawn from real business, and calculated to develop and render practical the knowledge acquired by the student, together with the definition and applicability of commercial terms and technicalities, and an appropriate style of business correspondence.

The average time for completing the full course is from *eight to ten weeks.*[1]

The course in Penmanship, in the same school, is described as teaching "a systematic style of Business Writing, enabling the student to write a free, bold and legible hand."

"Commercial calculation" usually included such "specialties" as "Interest," "Discount, scientific, simple, and compound," "Insurance," "Profit and Loss," "Partnerships," "Exchange," "Stocks," "Equation of Payments," "Storage," "Measurements," "Customs and Duties," "Taxes," "Tonnage of Vessels," and a subject now included under the head of statistics, called

[1] Catalogue, Bell's Commercial College, Chicago (1854). Page 8 ff.

"General Average." It was taught in a large number of the earlier schools.

The course in commercial law, evidently depending upon the instructor's conception of what it should include, varied from a very complete course to the kind offered by a Commercial College in Boston described in terms of lectures on Mercantile Law to be delivered by a "gentleman of eminent ability."

Besides the usual courses of bookkeeping, penmanship, which was sometimes divided into "practical penmanship" and "ornamental penmanship," commercial calculations, and commercial law, there were some specific instances of schools offering modern languages and navigation.[1] There was a general tendency to include more and more studies. This was especially true in New England. The Crittenden Commercial College in 1858 listed a professor of phonography in its catalogue,[2] but no further description of this study was made. The college of Commerce[3] in 1859 had in addition to its Commercial Department, departments of English, Classics, Music and Military Science. And Comer's Commercial College in 1860 offered, besides the regular clerical training, certain work in languages, engineering, mathematics, and English, to which was added surveying within the next year. In 1864 a Commercial College in Rhode Island[4] offered penmanship,

[1] Comer's Commercial College offered navigation, and Crittenden's Commercial College had a Department of Modern Languages.

[2] Catalogue Crittenden's Commercial College, Philadelphia. 1858.

[3] Catalogue Eaton's College of Commerce, Worcester, Mass. 1859.

[4] Catalogue Schofield's Commercial College, Providence, R. I. 1864.

bookkeeping, phonography, English branches, surveying, civil engineering, navigation, mechanical drawing, and languages. In 1864 telegraphy was introduced with the remark that " managers and superintendents of telegraph lines throughout the United States for the past two or three years, have experienced great difficulty in obtaining sufficient competent operators to properly transact the vastly increasing business which has been thrown upon them."[1] This study was introduced into Comer's Commercial College in 1865. With the development of specialized engineering schools the engineering studies were dropped, and when the public high schools became more universal, English and modern language courses disappeared from the private commercial college program. Between 1880 and 1890 the typewriter[2] became perfected and those schools that could afford to do so began to hold classes in typewriting. The Soule Commercial College[3] introduced this study as " machine stenography and typewriting " in 1893, with the remark that " as is the relationship and superiority of the locomotive to the stagecoach, the reaper to the sickle, the telegraph to the post boy, the steamship to the sailing vessel, the spinning jenny to the spinning wheel, the sewing machine to the sewing needle,

[1] Catalogue Crittenden's Commercial College. 1864. Page 11.

[2] Overleigh, Herbert. " The Evolution of the Typewriter," pamphlet published by the Remington Typewriter Company. " The Remington Company says its first machines were ready for the market in 1874, but the public was skeptical about the value of the new machine for practical purposes and found one great objection in its use in the fact that it wrote capitals only. This objection however was soon overcome."

[3] Catalogue Soule's Commercial College and Literary Institute, New Orleans. Page 22.

the telephone to the messenger boy, so is the relationship and superiority of the stenography system of shorthand to the pencil system, and the typewriter to the pen." It is a striking fact that at no other time in history could the effects of so many vital inventions be brought before the minds of those who had experienced the changes wrought by them. It is impossible to tell how far the inventions of this period affected the commercial advance of the nation but it is obvious that without them our present commercial system would have been impossible.

It is small wonder that the schools found it difficult to keep up with such a rapid advance as was taking place. Of necessity there had to be much reorganization. Courses of study were changed and expanded in the attempt to meet the need for workers to aid in these social and economic readjustments. The scope of instruction in the best of the private business colleges at the beginning of the twentieth century is illustrated by the following suggestive outline, prepared by a committee of the Department of Business Education of the National Education Association:

Suggestive Outline of Business College Studies.[1]

Mathematics:

a. Bookkeeping
b. Arithmetic including rapid calculation.

Writing:

a. Penmanship
b. Shorthand
c. Typewriting

[1] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1898–1899. Volume 11, Page 2964.

Business:

a. Business practice, including business methods and customs.
b. The History of Commerce
c. Commercial Geography

English:

a. Spelling
b. Grammar and Punctuation
c. Business Correspondence
d. Composition and Rhetoric
e. Public Speaking

Civics:

a. Commercial Law
b. Civil Government
c. Economics

This report shows that bookkeeping is regarded as the fundamental study, and further states that no school gives all of the studies listed, "because the students only want the more technical work." The program of most of the schools included the following courses of study:

1. A Business Course, which included training in business transactions usually developed through bookkeeping, in commercial law, and in commercial practice.
2. An Amanuensis Course (sometimes called shorthand course), which regularly included shorthand, typewriting, and English composition, and in colleges, the classifying and filing of business papers, indexing and proof reading.
3. A Telegraphy Course, intended for telegraph operators, a technical course.
4. An English Course, intended to supplement previous education when necessary, including grammar, spelling, letter writing, arithmetic, penmanship, and in some schools other subjects, such as algebra, geometry, physical geography, United States History, and drawing.

Though the last two decades have seen the passing of some of the poorer classes of private institutions for this kind of training, especially those of semi-academic type,[1] there are still many poor schools offering commercial work. Business college courses have changed very little since the beginning of the present century. Some of the more progressive institutions have adopted advanced methods and are making every effort to keep the standards for clerical training as high as the business standards require. In some instances they have expanded their program to include courses in business organization and administration.[2] Catalogues show an attempt to make salesmanship part of the work,[3] but in most cases these attempts have failed on account of the limited time usually allotted to such instruction. The classification of the courses has been rearranged by the Commissioner of Education, who now reports the courses of the several "colleges" under the following heads: General Commercial Courses, Amanuensis Courses, Combined Courses, English Courses, and Telegraphy Courses.[4] The work offered by the "semi-public" institutions, of which the Young Men's Christian Association is an example, started in imitation of the business college, but with the additional aim of developing manhood. The sincerity of the instructors has been the chief asset of this type of training and on the whole a high type of work has been accomplished. The beginnings were book-

[1] Cf. Catalogue Rutland English and Classical Institute and Business College. 1897.

[2] Catalogues Bryant and Stratton School, Buffalo, N. Y. and Comer's Commercial College, Boston (1918).

[3] Bryant and Stratton Commercial College, Boston 1918.

[4] Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year ending June 30, 1917, Volume II, Page 551.

keeping, business English, and commercial arithmetic. Salesmanship, window trimming, and show card writing were first offered by the Young Men's Christian Association classes. At the recent convention of this association held in Detroit, April 23–24, 1919, the entire field of commercial studies was reviewed and organized under the following branches:— business advertising, business English, public speaking, commercial law, and accounting.[1]

The tendency to develop corporation schools, specific in training, is characteristic of the modern attitude toward an educational program and suggestive of many phases of work to be considered in public training for commerce. Each corporation must of necessity formulate the aims for its training according to its own particular problem. The Larkin Company gives as its aims:[2]

1. "Detail department, where customer's files, accounts, and records of shipment are maintained.
2. "Recording department, which initiates shipping authorities from customer's orders.
3. "Routing department, in which the orders are routed and billed for shipment.
4. "Correspondence department, in which the customer's inquiries and complaints are answered."

The procedure under each one of these departments is very thoroughly covered by the course of instruction.

Many corporations have short courses for the instruction of their salesmen. The Norton Company (Springfield, Mass.), the Dennison Manufacturing Com-

[1] Commercial and Applied Business Courses, Report of Conference on, held by Y. M. C. A. in Detroit, April 23–24, 1919. Pages 1–32.

[2] From a printed leaflet issued by the Larkin Company of Buffalo, N. Y.

pany (Framingham, Mass.) illustrate two very different kinds of mercantile enterprises which offer short, definite courses for the training of their salesmen. These companies call their district salesmanagers to the home plant each year to attend the classes, in which methods and means of developing the market are discussed. The American Telephone and Telegraph Company, and subsidiary companies, appreciating the need of trained workers in telephonic traffic, conduct efficient training courses for their new employees. In each of the above instances the courses are so conducted that the employee covers the regular commercial routine and to some degree familiarizes himself with and perfects himself in a definite kind of work.

Thus the corporation class is a modern adaptation of apprentice training. It trains in a very specific way for a particular task. The aims are limited and the standards are regulated by the qualifications needed to carry on the corporation work.

The commercial course in the public secondary schools, paralleling the training offered by the commercial college, has developed its program of studies in a very similar manner. The first studies introduced — navigation (1821), bookkeeping (1823), and commerce (1836) — were shortlived, for the emphasis in all secondary education was upon general academic training. Preparation for college was the sole aim of the schools. But by the middle of the nineteenth century those boys and girls who did not care to train for the professions began to demand attention, so that the permanent introduction of the commercial branches took place during the "fifties" and "sixties." Bookkeeping, the first subject to be extensively adopted, by the very nature of the work, be-

came the center around which commercial studies developed. Even as late as 1900 the enrollment of students in public "Business Classes" was only 21,253 while those enrolled in "Bookkeeping" numbered 68,890.[1]

In 1841 the Central High School of Philadelphia organized two courses for commercial training, a four-year course and a two-year course. The four-year course was to "provide a liberal education to those intended for business life," and the shorter course was to meet the needs of all those students who could give but a limited time to the work of preparation.[2]

These courses, evidently in advance of their time, were soon given up and it was not until a much later date that Philadelphia reëstablished commercial training in its public schools.

During the last decade of the nineteenth century the work of the public high schools became dominated by the classics, and as a result the business college began to draw many students from the high school classes. In order to prevent this, the high schools introduced other short technical courses of the business college type. This meant the establishing of classes in commercial arithmetic, in penmanship, in commercial geography, in typewriting, and in stenography. In Boston, 1897–1898, the "commercial courses" were introduced into the day high schools and "offered to all boys and girls who desired to take them. Special instructors in bookkeeping, stenography, and typewriting, were employed."[3]

[1] Report of the Commissioner of Education. 1900. Volume II, Page 2478.

[2] Herrick, C. A. "Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education." Page 214.

[3] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1897–98. Volume II, Page 2461.

This course of study as adopted was "to extend through two years," and is a very good example of the types of one and two year courses of the public high schools.

First year: English language, literature, ancient history, phonography, penmanship, commercial forms, commercial arithmetic, and bookkeeping.

Second year: English language, literature, medieval history, modern history, phonography, typewriting, elements of mercantile law, bookkeeping, commercial geography, geology, physiology, hygiene, drawing, music, physical training.

These short courses were so detached from practical or vocational application that they were in most cases failures. "They created wrong impressions in the minds of the students. They belittled business by implying that the preparation required by the successful business man was not as great as that demanded by other pursuits."[1]

However, with the introduction of these two-year courses of study began the real history of public commercial education in the secondary schools. Educators commenced to realize that commercial education was permanent, that it no longer could be refused the attention it merited. The two-year courses lengthened to three- and four-year courses, so that only five years after the short courses were offered by Boston, the Committee of Nine[2] in reporting to the Department of Business

[1] Michigan Alumnus, December, 1902.

[2] Report of the Committee of Nine of the Department of Business Education, National Education Association, submitted at Boston, 1903, "The Curricula of Commercial Education for the Public Schools."

Education of the National Education Association gave the following four-year course of study, based upon representative work that was being done in the high schools offering commercial studies.

First year: English, German or French or Spanish, algebra, general history, bookkeeping, penmanship, and drawing.

Second year: History of English literature, composition, commercial correspondence, modern language, commercial arithmetic, English and European history, study of commercial products, commercial geography, bookkeeping, and typewriting.

Third year: Rhetoric and composition, United States history, plane geometry, physics or chemistry, political economy, commercial law, bookkeeping, and office practice, language or shorthand or typewriting.

Fourth year: English literature, parliamentary practice, history of commerce, language or shorthand or typewriting, physics or chemistry, banking and finance, solid geometry, mechanical drawing, advertising, accounting, office practice for stenographers.

The development of the special commercial course in the general high school defined more clearly the aims of commercial training and pointed out the studies necessary to realize those aims. This brought about a distinction between the cultural and commercial subjects and, because of the necessity of specialization in many of the subjects taught, led to the segregation of classes. From this segregation of classes came the organization of separate commercial programs of study in which the more extensive attempts at program building could develop unhampered.

About the beginning of the present century, the Philadelphia Central High School organized an independent

four-year commercial course of study, the studies falling under the following heads: — English, foreign languages, mathematics, history, science, economics, political science, and business technique.

New York established a High School of Commerce which arranged its course to cover a period of five years. Several commercial high schools having a four-year course were established, but all their programs of study show a marked dominance of general training, so much so in fact, that an authority remarks that "their programs are simply those of the ordinary high schools with a little specialization in some branches for the requirements of business. The differences might be adopted by all secondary schools with advantage in a practical age like our own."[1]

However, in the last ten years the subject matter of the commercial schools has been more carefully chosen, and many studies have been added to the courses of study and some dropped from them. A study of several states shows the importance and range of the several subjects offered. By means of questionnaires the following data were gathered. The first tabulation shows the distribution of the schools reporting.

[1] Barclay, Thomas. "Commercial Education and American Prosperity." Report of Mosely Commission. Page 296.

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS ANSWERING INQUIRY UPON COMMERCIAL EDUCATION [1]

State	*Number of Schools*
1. California	4
2. Colorado	3
3. Connecticut	1
4. Florida	1
5. Illinois	11
6. Indiana	5
7. Iowa	2
8. Kansas	5
9. Louisiana	1
10. Massachusetts	5
11. Michigan	15
12. Minnesota	6
13. Missouri	7
14. Montana	3
15. Nebraska	2
16. New York	3
17. North Dakota	1
18. Ohio	6
19. Oklahoma	2
20. Oregon	1
21. Pennsylvania	2
22. South Dakota	1
23. Washington, D. C.	1
24. Wisconsin	7
Total	95

[1] Koos, Leonard V. "Administration of Secondary School Units." Pages 141–142. Professor Koos conducted a very thorough investigation from which these data are taken in their original form for the states of Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.

In the following table the various studies taught are shown, as well as the number of times each of the several subjects is reported.

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH THE VARIOUS COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS ARE TAUGHT

Subject	*Number of Schools Reporting Work*
Accounting	8
Advertising	5
Banking and finance	5
Bookkeeping	109
Business English	94
Business technique	8
Commercial arithmetic	84
Commercial art	10
Commercial geography	65
Commercial history	14
Commercial law	18
Economics	13
English	21
Foreign trade	1
History	17
Mathematics	14
Merchandising	1
Modern languages	16
Music	12
Navigation	1
Occupations	2
Office practice	21
Oral English	4
Penmanship	35
Penmanship and spelling	15
Proof reading	1
Salesmanship	12
Science	16
Shorthand	89
Spelling	25

Transportation	4
Typewriting	88
Window display	1

English is the only study given in all of the schools. The next studies of importance are evidently bookkeeping and shorthand. The study of law, of geography, and of languages especially adapted to commercial needs are also very high in the list. Salesmanship, transportation, oral English, occupations, and advertising courses are being attempted by some of the schools. The study shows the extent of the development of the commercial courses of study which in their beginning consisted of one course, " bookkeeping. "

CHAPTER III

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CERTAIN TENDENCIES IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION (*Continued*)

The former chapter has traced the development of commercial education from private dominance to public control, and has related this to the larger movement of a free public school system. It has pointed out how this social control of the public school system has made mandatory the expansion of the curricula from those that included only a limited training in clerical studies to instruction in the several broad fields of commercial activity. The tendencies remaining for discussion show the increasing importance given commercial work in our public high schools.

From a Special Class in the Regular Classical High School to Separate Departments and Schools of Commerce

The beginnings of commercial work are to be found in detached classes that were offered to meet the needs of those students who could not take the full work offered in general academic training. The English Classical High School of Boston, as early as 1821, offered a course in navigation, but the subject was unidentified with any

course of study, and was selected at the option of the student.[1]

For many years courses in bookkeeping and commercial arithmetic were offered in a similar way in Pittsburgh, Milwaukee, and in many smaller high schools.

This method was inefficient from the very start and soon the authorities developed a somewhat better plan for correlating the commercial work with the regular courses. Certain so-called commercial courses were organized that substituted a few commercial subjects for certain general academic studies usually offered. For example, in Omaha (1898)[2] a commercial course was offered which substituted such commercial studies as commercial arithmetic, bookkeeping and commercial law for botany, medieval history, and chemistry. But this method of organization was also very unsatisfactory in that it could not keep pace with the demand and led to friction between the proponents of two very distinct philosophies of education; those who believed in formal discipline and an education for culture, and those who believed in specific education and vocational training. Because of the limitations thus placed upon commercial education, it was being robbed of half of its possibilities. It took the student four years to cover the course, at the completion of which he had altogether too little technical training. Many of the students who were unable to attend the full four years, enrolled in short business college courses.

[1] The course "navigation," a forerunner of the present course, contained but few of the elements of transportation now presented. It was largely concerned with technical navigation.

[2] Program of Studies of the Omaha, Nebraska, Public High School, 1898.

In the last decade of the nineteenth century a type of two-year commercial course was offered by the Brooklyn Boys' High School. Boston carried out the same kind of a plan, establishing its work in 1897.[1] Washington with a two-year plan and Pittsburgh with a one-year course followed this same trend. But, once established, these short courses were found unsatisfactory in the organization of the public high school and almost immediately they were lengthened to include three and four years of work. The Albany High School, and the Grand Rapids Central High School organized upon a four-year basis, the Hill House High School (New Haven, Conn.) upon the three-year plan.[2] Later Boston and Pittsburg (1899) also established the four-year course.

Along with the development of the longer course, departments of commerce were organized in the public schools. One of the earliest, the "Department of Commercial Instruction" in the Pittsburg High School, developed a long four-year course, to meet the insistent demand for more thorough training. This was in addition to the short one-year course, previously established. Soon after, the Central High School of Philadelphia organized a commercial department which later grew into a High School of Commerce. In 1896 the Boys' High School of Brooklyn created a Department of Commerce which enlarged rapidly, and served as a model for other developing commercial departments until 1900. By the beginning of the present century a great number of high schools had established commercial departments.

[1] Course of Study of the Boston Public Schools, 1897.

[2] Report of Commissioner of Education. Volume II, 1897–98. Page 2448.

Commercial work improved and developed so rapidly that not only departments of commercial instruction, but also separate public commercial secondary schools were demanded. The first public commercial high school was organized almost as soon as the first department for commercial instruction. New York in 1890 claimed the first "Business High School" entirely supported by public funds; although its original course offered only a very limited clerical training. In 1898 the Department of Commerce in the Central High School of Philadelphia was reorganized into the High School of Commerce, as a separate institution offering a full four-year course. Within the next two years the New York High School of Commerce offering a five-year course was organized. In the same year the Department of Commerce of the Boys' High School of Brooklyn was established as a separate school, the Commercial High School, and organized to offer a three-year course. By 1910 commercial high schools were in operation in New York, Boston, Brooklyn, Washington, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Los Angeles, and Syracuse and other cities.

These in addition to completely organized commercial departments have given commercial education its place in the public educational program, for they have made it possible for secondary commercial training to develop normally the aims and methods which could not be developed under the older system of organization. Thus the commercial department and the specialized separate high school have completed a very distinct mission. Whether the separate high school remains a permanent institution is for the future to decide.

From Beginnings Opposed by Commercial Enterprise to the Establishment of Coöperation between Commercial Schools and Commerce

Since commercial education began at just about that period in the history of the nation when economic systems were adjusting themselves to the changes wrought by the industrial revolution, it was thrown into competition with the failing apprentice system. In the trades the new era practically destroyed apprenticeship and produced a race of "machine minders," but in commerce, organization and innovations were made more slowly. The old ideas of commercial activity held on with greater tenacity; administrators were loath to relinquish the personal touch of simple and unorganized business. The business took the boy on a "training wage" and he was trained by the executive he was to aid and finally succeed; he learned what he could when he could. If able, he advanced rapidly; if slow, he was doomed to a "blind alley job." Yet business was not aware that it was training men on the same basis as apprentices in industry were trained.

The first formal training for business could not compete with this "office apprentice system." Even well trained men with broad practical experience, would have had difficulty in adapting themselves to standards of an organization other than their own particular one. Yet students from schools offering meagre clerical training were expected to meet the exacting requirements of the particular business they entered.

The introduction of double entry bookkeeping systems standardized that branch of commerce more than any other, and in this work, the first to be given, the business

school training was the most successful. In other branches the commercial man counted the work as a failure; it was a common expression that "business training could not be obtained in the class room."[1]

The evolving of higher standards and more exact aims in business education, was perhaps the most important factor in bringing about an intimate, coöperative relationship between the office and the school. With the standards of expectancy in commercial life outlined, the aims and standards of the class-room became more definite and more exacting. Better work was accomplished. Conscious attempts were made to keep the work of the developing school program in touch with current commercial activity. Some of the schools furnished themselves with standard office equipment, filing systems, adding machines, mimeographs, and other office devices as part of the equipment of the school.[2] This idea was carried to the extreme in certain of the private schools[3] whose managers did not realize that "equipment was not a business, and making use of equipment not the same as doing business."[4]

In recent years public schools have enlarged upon the idea and have established museums where commercial products and forms are collected. An example of this is the Boston High School of Commerce which has de-

[1] Herrick, Chessman A. "Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education." Page 35.

[2] Most of the high school departments, or the commercial high schools are so equipped. This is remarked upon very favorably by the Mosely Commission.

[3] Hartog, P. J. "Commercial Education in the United States." Ed. M. Sadler. Volume II. Pt. 2. Pages 241 ff.

[4] Kahn, J. and Klein, J. J. "Principles and Methods in Commercial Education." Page 420.

veloped a museum where students gather together materials for study. The Los Angeles Polytechnic High School has used a similar collection of materials to familiarize the students with commercial work and standards. The Berkeley (Calif.) High School and the Central High School of Philadelphia, and others, have used similar methods of instruction.

The first business men called to lecture in schools were brought in to develop certain specific work. Comer's Business College called in a lecturer on commercial law.[1] Another business college "held lectures on the philosophy of commerce." While these men were not paid instructors, they brought an interpretation of actual business conditions to the class-room. Until very recently the public schools have made little use of this means of coöperation. But today the commercial high schools of Detroit, Cleveland, San Francisco, New York, and Boston, as well as others, have regular series of lectures by prominent business men. These series had their beginning in miscellaneous lectures but have developed until they have become a regular part of the school program. Much of the information they give to the pupil is not permanent, but the inspiration and the enthusiasm aroused by them are lasting.

If the work of commercial education is to be progressive, teachers must keep up with modern commercial standards. Methods change so rapidly that a teacher well grounded when he comes to a school, soon falls far behind commercial procedure unless he studies the very latest commercial methods. This he can do by spending a given amount of time each year in active observation of practical business. In Los Angeles the teachers are

[1] Catalogue, Comer's Business College, 1856. Page 6.

obliged to hand in reports on required visits to commercial houses. In Boston one teacher from the High School of Commerce visits the offices and stores and reports upon the work of the school. But this method is not as efficient as the first, and the headmaster of the Boston High School of Commerce says that they are now developing a system that will take each of the several commercial teachers into an intimate study of commercial activity. Merchants are usually very glad to have classes of students visit their establishments and observe commercial activities in operation. In attempting this practical method of coördinating the work in Portland (Ore.) the teacher found that the "classroom work improved materially." This method, as carried out by many schools, is found to aid both commerce and commercial education; it provides a knowledge of each special business so that some students are attracted to the enterprise as their line of work, and it gives another representative of business an insight into the work of the public schools. A representative of one of the large department stores in Portland (Ore.) said, "At first we thought it an annoyance, but now we like to have high school students come in to see our work when we have arranged for it, for invariably they become interested in us, which means, of course, we become interested in them. We get many good employees from that source."

One of the most effective methods of establishing cooperation has been developed since the beginning of this century — the survey. The survey makes a study of business conditions in order to establish the relationship of instruction to them. If rightly carried out by enlisting the aid of representatives of commerce as well as of education this becomes particularly helpful both to

the school for commercial instruction and to commerce. This phase of the work is completely described in Chapter V.

In discussing the need of advisory committees for public commercial education, the late Superintendent Thompson of Boston said, "Advisory committees of business men (with advisory functions only) should be established to guide and counsel commercial schools on the one hand, and on the other, to awaken business men generally to a sense of their responsibilities with respect to commercial education. It is only by an equal partnership of the school master and the business man that the problem can be solved in a comprehensive and effective way."[1]

Boston was one of the first cities to have such an advisory committee. In 1915 an advisory board consisting of five members was established in New York City, for the purpose of counseling and advising the Board of Education in all matters relating to the training for gainful occupations in the public schools. Cleveland shortly after this date created a like committee for commercial work and since then Buffalo, Rochester, and Chicago, have approved of and adopted the plan. Although the practice is not universal, it is spreading, for the results of the coöperation of such committees with the school authorities prove it to be one of the most satisfactory means of establishing an intimate and helpful relationship between business and business training. The report of the committee on the "Relation of the Public School to Commerce, Industry, and Labor," of the National Association of Corporation Schools summarizes its find-

[1] Thompson, F. V. "Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools." Page 153.

ings by stating that, " it is satisfying to note that where either labor organizations or business organizations have appointed advisory committees to work with public school authorities . . . good results have been obtained." [1]

This establishment of coöperation is of value to commerce; business has a greater influence, more direct than heretofore possible, upon the schools which are training workers to fill its ranks, and more responsibility in helping to shape their aims and standards. For the schools, it establishes greater interest in their work and helps develop a more practical and better equipped training. Thus through the development of these various agencies the coöperation lacking at the very beginning of " Commercial Education " has been partially effected.

From a Regular Study Limited to the Work of the Public Day School to Evening Classes and Part-Time Work

The development of the regular program for commercial education has occupied a great deal of the time and taken up the major part of the efforts of those directing business training. It was not until the last decade of the nineteenth century that any serious effort was made to enlarge the program of secondary commercial education to include any form of continuation work. The earliest attempts were made in the establishment of evening schools, and later, due largely to the constantly increasing demands of the keenly-striving and

[1] Report of Committee on Relation of the Public School to Commerce, Industry, and Labor of the National Association of Corporation Schools, 1919, Seventh Annual Convention. Chicago. Page 14.

progressive commercial communities, part-time classes were established.

The evening classes in commercial education, once established, increased very rapidly, both in the development of the number of courses offered, and in the enrollment. Evening courses were organized upon the same basis as the day school courses but were usually more limited in their scope. In 1907 an evening high school in New York City offered the following commercial subjects: Stenography, Bookkeeping, Business Arithmetic, and Commercial Law; these attempting "not only to make good bookkeepers, but also to give a general training which would enable the students to take honorable positions in public life."[1]

How far the aims of the school were realized cannot be estimated, but in a more recent survey (1912) of the evening commercial classes in the same city the criticism is made that "the work is almost wholly clerical and without most of the liberal features found in the day school courses."[2] However, evening-class work gradually expanded. In 1918 Los Angeles offered evening courses as complete as those offered in the day school. This was also true in Chicago, and other cities. A survey of the evening school work in forty cities and towns in the United States shows that thirty-seven offer evening classes in commercial work.

The enrollment in evening commercial classes has steadily increased. In 1900 there were 16,094 pupils enrolled in evening classes. This number increased in 1905 to 34,205, but in 1910 the number decreased to

[1] Sadler, M. E. "Continuation Schools in England and Elsewhere." Page 651.

[2] Thompson, F. V. "Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools." Page 146.

34,032. This slight decrease was soon overcome and the next five years saw a large increase. The enrollment reached 52,855, and in 1916, 63,652.[1] These figures can only be considered as indicative of the development of the work, for the average daily attendance in these classes is much lower than the enrollment. The most difficult problem in the administration of the evening school is securing regular attendance of the pupils. A study of the records of attendance of the evening commercial schools shows that from a large enrollment there is a great diminution in the number of students who actually attend classes for a short period, and a still greater drop in the average attendance. Reorganizing these facts, the Reports of the Commissioner of Education, since 1910, include the average attendance at these classes. For the past six years it has been 42 percent of the enrollment.[2] This percentage is fairly constant not only throughout the period of years, but for the several districts from which reports are made. So it would be a fairer estimate to give the progress of the evening commercial classes in terms of 42 percent of the enrollment.

Effective correlation between the work of the Commercial High School and the several branches of commerce by means of part-time work has been a more recent development. The first attempts at part-time training can be illustrated by the practice of the Boston High School of Commerce. This school sent certain of its best students into offices and stores for a limited time each year. This plan is still continued. It does not, however,

[1] Figures from the Reports of the Commissioner of Education for the several years enumerated.

[2] From figures taken from the Reports of the Commissioner of Education.

bring into play the distinctive features of such work, the active coöperation of boys and girls.

The main types of coöperative courses that have been developed are clerical, stenographic, and retail selling. During the past four or five years part-time courses in these branches have been inaugurated in a number of cities and towns. Cincinnati and Rochester serve as examples of the larger cities; Fond du Lac (Wis.) and Oklahoma City (Okla.) of the smaller cities. There are two methods, which vary but little from place to place, of establishing this coöperative work. The first method is that used in Rochester (N. Y.), which alternates a week's work in the office with a week's work in the class-room. The second method as used in Boston (Mass.), arranges to have the students at work in the office or store for certain periods each day.

The Chicago plan for coöperative classes is the newest development in this field. Some of the large firms of Chicago, realizing the limitations of the corporation class asked the Board of Education to furnish commercial teachers and establish and maintain commercial continuation schools in their plants. The plan was adopted by the Board. Classes in commercial education are now held in the offices of Swift and Company, Armour and Company, and Morris and Company. This plan has been carried further so that one or two joint classes for smaller concerns are now being tried out.

At the present time more than a score of cities and towns have established some form of part-time classes in commercial work. Thus, training for business has not only developed from the single class to thorough training in the regular public commercial high school, but it has also established the beginnings of an effective

correlation between the regular class-room work and the several commercial units of the community.

From a Laissez-Faire Policy in Regard to the Lives of Those Trained to Vocational Guidance

Some form of informal educational guidance has always been present in the public high school; but, because of the influence of the dominating individualistic philosophy of the century, and the doctrine which held that trained "mental faculties" were to be aimed for because they were universally adaptable, no form of direct vocational guidance appeared in the public schools until about 1909. At this time changes in educational theory, in the character of the school population, and in society were responsible for the introduction of guidance.

In 1908 Professor Frank Parsons established the "Vocational Bureau of Boston."[1]

This work developed rapidly and soon became widely known. Out of it grew the first National Conference on Vocational Guidance held in Boston (1910). As the direct result of the work of this Bureau came the organized development of vocational guidance in the Boston Public Schools. The Superintendent of Schools appointed a committee consisting of Masters and Submasters to work in coöperation with the Vocational Bureau. Among the early activities of this joint commission the most important were:

1. "The investigation of conditions in the trades and businesses of Boston.
2. "The conducting of a school for vocational coun-

[1] Parsons, Frank. "Choosing a Vocation." Page 91.

selors wherein teachers and others who were interested in this important work might prepare themselves for the better performance of their important tasks.

3. "A coöperation whereby various organizations undertook to perform needed services without duplication of efforts.

4. "The advising of students concerning vocational pursuits."

While this movement was getting started, a similar pioneer work was being carried on in New York City. By 1909 a report was made by the chairman of the Students' Aid Committee of the High School Teachers' Association to the effect that there were now in all day and evening high schools of New York City special committees whose aim it was "to aid deserving students to secure employment during vacations and for out of school hours in order to earn part of their support; to advise those who are ready to leave school, in the choice of a vocation; to direct them how best to fit themselves for their chosen vocation, and to assist them in securing employment which will lead to success in those vocations."[1] This report further pointed out that the work was on a permanent basis and asked that:

1. "The vocational officers of the large high schools be allowed at least one extra period of unassigned time to attend to this work.

2. "They be provided with facilities for keeping records of the students and employment.

3. "They have opportunities for holding conferences with students and employers."

In Grand Rapids, Jesse Davis approached the problem by attempting to give a knowledge of the vocations

[1] Report of the work of the Students' Aid Committee of the High School Teachers' Association of New York City. May 15, 1909. Page 5.

through the teaching of English. Mr. Ryan says of the plan, "Little noticed at first, this method has had a remarkable influence, especially in interesting teachers in occupational problems and placing the task of vocational guidance directly upon the public schools."[1]

From these representative beginnings the vocational guidance movement has developed into many specialized forms. Such commercial high schools as the Boston High School of Commerce and the Brooklyn Commercial High School have a series of lectures to give information about the different commercial branches; they urge the students to work in the several business houses during holiday and vacation periods; they attempt to place their better students in offices and stores under supervision of the school for definite periods each year; and they have well organized employment systems for the placing of students and for following up the work done.

Other high schools like the Technical High School of Fall River (Mass.) and the Los Angeles (Calif.) Polytechnic High School have courses in "occupations." These courses are electives in their commercial programs, and are planned to give the pupils an opportunity to acquire information concerning the several branches of commerce and industry.

The extent of the recent development of vocational guidance in public secondary schools is shown in a study made by the Bureau of Education. An inquiry was forwarded to 10,400 four-year high schools[2] in the

[1] Ryan, W. Carson, Jr., "Vocational Guidance and the Public Schools." Bulletin No. 24, 1918, Department of Interior.

[2] For year 1918 Mr. Ryan gives 10,400 four-year high schools. This number when compared with the figures of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1916–1917 seems high. Just what classification of schools was used cannot be determined.

United States, "requesting data on departments or bureaus designed to assist young persons in securing employment." Nine hundred thirty-two, out of 5,628 answering the inquiry, "reported vocation bureaus, employment departments, or similar devices for placing pupils."[1]

About one tenth of the schools noted that they were putting vocational guidance into effect in some way. Thirty-three were doing placement work in commerce, which in all cases was included in the regular work of the schools. There are doubtless many others of the 2,844[2] public high schools reporting commercial work which attempt some form of vocational guidance and of placement work.

In summarizing the report of vocational work in the high schools Mr. Ryan says "that in the past ten years vocational guidance has gone through the usual private pathfinding and experimentation and ultimate public adoption."[3]

This terse statement includes the following representative developments. New York City has worked out a fairly complete plan of vocational guidance which makes use of a large staff of counselors. The Boston joint commission plan has been superseded by a complete system of guidance under a director, and provides vocational counselors for each school. The essential feature of the plan is a central exchange — The Boston Placement Bureau — through which all cases are handled.

[1] Bulletin No. 24, 1918, Department of Interior,

[2] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1916, Vol. II.

[3] Ryan, W. Carson, Jr. "Vocational Guidance and the Public Schools." Page 37. Bulletin No. 24, United States Department Interior, 1918.

In 1916 San Francisco created the position of Director of Vocational Guidance, and a year later Pittsburg established a like position. The Chicago Bureau of Vocational Guidance, established about the same time, has developed a system of counseling.

Thus within the past ten years there has been a rapid development of the work in vocational guidance. Perhaps it is not too much to say that among public schools none have been more progressive in this field than the schools of commerce.

Summary of Tendencies

These last two chapters have considered the tendencies which have produced present conditions in commercial education. The first extensive attempts at class room training for business were made as private ventures, and only recently has public secondary education in commercial work begun to supersede this private endeavor. The early courses covering very limited clerical work only have expanded into highly organized and diversified programs of study, while the unrelated single commercial class of the public high school has grown into the department of commerce and the specialized separate commercial high school. With the increasing facilities for training, a beginning of active coöperation has sprung up between the public schools and commerce, and this relationship has been further strengthened by evening classes and particularly by part-time work. Finally, the interest of the community in its commercial personnel has established the vocational guidance movement in the educational program for business training. These tendencies in commercial education are indicative not

only of the changes that have taken place in the social and economic systems of the nation, but of a wider conception of the meaning of public education: a conception that is inclusive of vocational education as an essential part of the educational program.

CHAPTER IV

A STUDY OF THE PRESENT STATUS OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

THE preceding chapter has traced the essential features in the growth of commercial education from their beginnings to their acceptance as a part of the current educational program. This chapter will attempt to summarize broadly the present status of commercial education in the public secondary schools, to appraise the work offered, and to determine the changes and adjustments that seem desirable.

Commercial instruction in the public high schools has developed very rapidly during the last few years. The following table gives the increase in the number of commercial students in the public secondary schools since 1900.

TABLE V

STUDENTS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL COMMERCIAL COURSES [1]

Year	*No. of Pupils*	*Year*	*No. of Pupils*
1900–1901	84,412	1909–1910	81,249
1901–1902	76,794	1910–1911	110,925
1902–1903	79,207	1911–1912	128,977
1903–1904	85,313	1912–1913	154,042
1904–1905	90,309	1913–1914	161,250
1905–1906	95,000	1914–1915	208,605
1906–1907	———	1915–1916	243,185
1907–1908	59,635	1916–1917	———
1908–1909	72,255	1917–1918	278,275

[1] Figures from the Reports of the Commissioner of Education for the respective years. Lined where the figures are not available.

The relation of public secondary schools offering commercial training to other institutions for the year 1917–1918 is shown in the following report:

TABLE VI

STUDENTS IN COMMERCIAL COURSES: 1917–1918[1]

Class of institutions	*Schools*	*Students*
Private High Schools	872	23,801
Public High Schools	2,953	278,275
Commercial Schools (pvt.)	890	289,579
Total	4,715	591,655

This difference has been overcome and now the public schools are training over half of the students taking commercial work,[2] and many of the cities are investing very substantial sums in commercial education. Boston spends about one-seventh of its budget for the public high schools on commercial education, Milwaukee about one-sixth, and other cities report similar large expenditures. These figures have been interpreted to mean that the largest cities of the United States are perhaps spending more for the commercial work than for any other branch of education.[3]

The number of pupils training for commercial pursuits as well as the number of those employed in them is indicative of the responsibilities assumed by public secondary education. Boys and girls fourteen to eighteen years of age leave school and go to work at

[1] Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year ended June, 1919.

[2] Cf. Table II, page 23.

[3] Thompson, F. V. "Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools." Page 1.

the rate of about a million and a quarter every year. At all times, more than two million children between ten and fifteen years of age are at work. Of this number approximately 89 percent are employed in trade or in commerce.[1] Though many receive training, a large number enter commercial pursuits unprepared.

In order to study the status of current public secondary education for commerce, to determine what opportunity for efficient public commercial education is being offered to those who desire it, questionnaires were forwarded to 124 representative cities of the United States, to 24 of the largest cities, to 30 of those having 25,000 to 50,000 inhabitants, and to 50 of those having 10,000 to 25,000 inhabitants. Twenty-one of the cities in the first group returned answers, twenty-three of the second group, and thirty-one of the third group. In most instances courses of study and other data were included with the returned answers. In some cases the answers to questions were further discussed by correspondence. The results of this study show in a general way the conditions prevailing in commercial education in public secondary schools.

The Replies Received from the Largest Cities

The replies to the questions are recorded in Table VII. Whenever possible the answers are recorded exactly as given by the representative of the particular city reporting.

[1] Nichols, F. G. Address before High School Headmasters' Club of Massachusetts, Cambridge, Mass., March, 1919.

THE QUESTIONS SUBMITTED TO THE SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE SEVERAL CITIES OF THE FIRST GROUP.[1]

1. "What proportion of all secondary pupils in your city are found in commercial courses?" (Approximate answer.) .....
2. "Do you have a separate commercial high school, or commercial course in general high schools, or both?" .....
3. Do you segregate the sexes in commercial instruction?" .....
4. "Do commercial pupils get related academic work, e.g., commercial English, history, modern languages? If so, are commercial divisions in academic subjects distinct from other divisions, i.e., sections pursuing general high school work?" .....
5. "Have you 'intensified' commercial courses? If so, what years?" .....
6. "Is salesmanship a part of your commercial work?" .....
7. Is transportation, in any of its forms, taught in your commercial work? .....
8. Do you have evening classes in commercial education? .....
9. Have you made any attempt to carry on part-time work? If so, to what extent? Describe very briefly methods used. .....
10. Do you have an advisory body for your commercial work, i.e., a committee of business men of the chamber of commerce, or a similar organization of business men? .....

[1] Questions one to six inclusive were taken from the study made by Mr. Frank V. Thompson in "Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools." Chapter I.

TABLE VII

Cities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Baltimore, Md.	33-40%	No. Commercial Dept. in General High Schools. Commercial Class in Colored High School.	Except in Colored High School, Boys and Girls are separated.	In part only.	In office practice and stenography.	No. (contemplated).	No.	Yes, but not continuation schools.	No (contemplated).	Conferences with business organizations only.
Boston, Mass.	62.5%	Both.	Yes, in separate Com. Schools. No, in General High Schools.	Subjects are closely related in special Com. High Schools. Not so in General High Schools.	Yes, in Boston Classical School and Dorchester High School in upper and graduate years.	Yes.	Yes. High School of Commerce.	Yes.	Yes, in connection with salesmanship.	Yes
Buffalo, N. Y.	25-30%	Commercial Courses in three of our five High Schools.	No.	Yes, they get related academic work. No distinction.	No, regular course, four years.	No.	No.	Yes.	No.	Yes.
Cleveland, Ohio.	16%	Two separate High Schools of Commerce.	In a few classes.	Yes.	Yes, in senior and junior years.	Yes.	Senior year.	Yes.	Yes, but not entirely organized.	Yes.
Chicago, Ill.	30%	Commercial Courses in 20 High Schools, 3 Junior High Schools and 1 Junior College of Commerce.	No	In part o ly.	Yes, five months intensive stenography course given at completion of four year general course.	Yes.	No.	Yes, in about twelve High Schools.	Yes.	Supervisor of Commercial Work is a member of Chicago Association of Commerce.
Cincinnati, Ohio.	30.3%	Com. Course in three General High Schools.	No.	Yes.	Yes, stenography in senior year.	Yes.	No.	Yes, two year course in two High Schools.	Yes.	No.

TABLE VII — *Continued*

Cities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Detroit, Mich.	35–40%	High School of Commerce and departments in academic High Schools.	No.	In part only.	No, except in High School of Commerce.	In H. S. of Commerce.	No.	Yes.	No.	No.
Indianapolis, Ind.	8–10%	Combined.	No.	In "vocational commercial" classes only.	"Vocational Commercial" 1 and 2.	No.	No.	Yes.	No.	No.
Jersey Cy., N. J.	38%	Commercial Courses given in General High Schools.	No.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.
Kansas Cy. Mo.	25–30%	No separate High School of commerce. Commercial courses in all secondary schools.	No.	Commercial students get related academic work: in most cases in distinct divisions, in other cases with other students.	Yes, in 3d and 4th yrs.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
Los Angeles, Cal.	30–35%	No. Commercial work given in each High and Junior High School.	No.	Yes.	Yes, for special students who cannot spend 4 yrs. in High School work.	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Yes, in salesmanship.	No.
Louisville, Ky.	33–35%	Commercial Courses in General High School.	Sexes are segregated.	Yes.	Give two year course on purely com. subjects.	Yes.	No.	Yes.	No.	No.

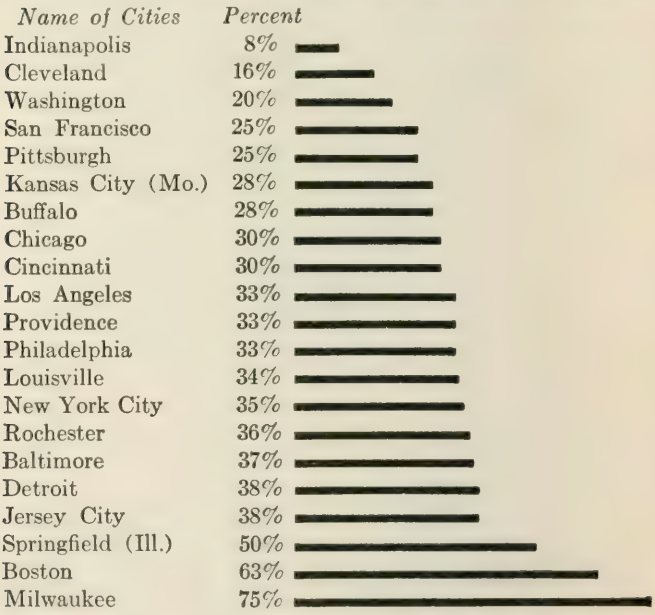
Milwaukee Wis.	About 75%	Commercial Courses in General High Schools	No.	Yes.	In 2 year commercial course	Yes.	No.	Yes.	No.	No.
New York, N. Y.	35%	Commercial High Schools and Commercial Department in General High Schools.	If schools are mixed, sexes are not segregated.	Yes, sections are divided only for academic subjects.	Yes, this course given to graduates of regular academic High Schools.	Yes, in 2 of 25 High Schools.	No.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
Philadelphia, Pa.	33.3%	Commercial Courses in General High Schools.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes, in last 2 years.	Yes.	No.	Yes.	No.	No.
Pittsburgh, Pa.	25%	Both.	No.	Yes: No.	No.	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Just beginning.	No.
Providence R. I.	About 33.3%	Both.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	Only for salesmanship.
Rochester, N. Y.	36.4%	Commercial Courses in General High Schools.	No.	Yes: No.	No.	Yes.	No. (contemplated)	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
San Francisco, Cal.	25%	Both.	No.	Yes.	Yes, in 4th year.	Yes.	No.	Yes.	Yes.	No.
Springfield, Ill.	50%	Commercial Dept. in General High School.	No.	No.	No.	No. (contemplated)	No.	No.	No.	No.
Washington, D. C.	20%	Both.	No.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.	Yes.	Not to a serious extent, then only in salesmanship.	No, frequently consult business men.

An Interpretation of the Answers from the First Group of Cities

1. As shown in the preceding table, the percentage of pupils enrolled in commercial work varies from 8 percent in Indianapolis to 75 percent reported in Milwaukee. The average percentage for the twenty-one cities is 34.075 percent, and the mode 34 percent. The following diagram shows that while the divergence is great, it is in a large part accounted for on occupational grounds.

DIAGRAM III

Percentage of Pupils Enrolled in Commercial Classes



Most of these cities have between 27 percent and 38 percent of their pupils enrolled in commercial classes.

These figures are at once significant in correctly estimating the importance of commercial work, in giving it its due place in the educational program.

2. In answer to the question, "Do you have a separate commercial high school, or commercial courses in general high schools?" eight cities, Cleveland, San Francisco, New York City, Boston, Pittsburg, Detroit, Providence, and Washington reported separate schools. These results when compared with a former study made by Mr. F. V. Thompson[1] showed that his list had been increased by but one city, Detroit, and that that city had contemplated its separate commercial high school at the time of his inquiry. Thus during the last ten years, practically no advance is shown in the movement for separate commercial schools. All cities reporting have commercial departments in their general high schools. There seems to be no definite educational policy in reference to the specialized high school; the experience of these schools seems to have offered little or no evidence that has tended to emphasize such a policy.

3. In answer to the question on sex segregation, the reports show that no case of segregation is the result of an established principle in regard to training for the different sexes. Baltimore, Philadelphia, Louisville, and Providence have their general high schools for boys and girls separate, so they report their commercial work as segregated. Boston and New York report a segregation of the sexes in the separate boys' commercial schools, but have mixed classes in the courses given in the general high schools. Cleveland sees fit to segregate the sexes

[1] Cf. Thompson, F. V. "Commercal Education in Public Secondary Schools." Chapter I is devoted to a study of current conditions. 1910.

in " a few classes only, " and the remaining answers show no segregation. The argument for sex segregation is based upon data taken from an analysis of current commercial activity and immediately comes in conflict with developing tendencies in commerce. There is no longer the marked differentiation between the commercial activities of the two sexes. The period of stress through which we are passing has broken down, to a greater or lesser degree, the division of the fields for sex occupation. The comparison of this report with that of Mr. Thompson shows that there has been no change in the educational attitude toward this problem in the last decade.

4. In the answers to this question, the relation of the technical work to the regular general academic work is pointed out. It is generally granted that little can be effectively accomplished with a generalized commercial education or education by a series of studies equally adapted to preparation for a variety of callings. General courses in arithmetic, in drawing, in English, in geography, in languages, or in applied sciences, however much they may seem to imitate the procedure of a true commercial education, are ineffective and uneconomical. As shown by the answers to the questionnaires, the work in most instances is not realizing its greatest possibilities, although exceptions should be noted in some of the better organized departments and in a few of the commercial high schools. Boston reports, " Subjects are closely related in special commercial schools. Not so in general high schools. " The Buffalo answer to this question is, " Yes, they get related academic work. No distinction. " Another reply (Chicago) is, " In so far as we can do so, the commercial divisions in academic subjects are distinct from other divisions." New York City answers,

"Yes. Sections are divided only for academic subjects." And the Philadelphia answer is, "Commercial pupils get related academic work. In some cases this is so specialized as to require separate divisions. In other cases the students are united with pupils pursuing high school courses." With these characteristic replies the complete set of answers can be estimated to mean that there is too little coördination of the work offered, and that aims and values for commercial training are not yet well established. Even in those courses offering related work the coördination could be much more complete.

5. The answers to this question show that in most instances the intensified work is being done in office practice and stenography. When given in the fourth year this intensified work provides instruction for graduates of the regular academic courses, as in New York City and Chicago, or is offered as a definite training to those making a specialty of stenography as illustrated in the work in Boston and in Baltimore. Several high schools, of which Indianapolis, Providence, Milwaukee, and Los Angeles serve as examples, give a two-year course in stenography and typewriting for those who cannot afford to spend four years in commercial training. A few of the cities offer no form of intensified work. While special attention is devoted to certain intensified work, the dominating interest seems to be in the development of the four-year course of commercial instruction.

6 and 7. These two questions have the same aim, namely, to show to what extent in commercial education the public schools are offering work that is not limited to clerical studies. Only recently have any at-

tempts been made to readjust the commercial program of studies to include the work that should be given to meet the diversified interests of business. Two important developing courses are courses in salesmanship and transportation. Seventeen of the twenty-one cities report salesmanship as a part of the commercial course offered, and two cities answering in the negative say that this subject is contemplated for the coming year. Washington reports, "Some experimental work only," and the remaining city, Buffalo, is the only one not offering or contemplating some form of instruction in salesmanship. Thus during the last few years there has been an almost universal incorporation of this study in the commercial courses. Comparing the reports with those of Mr. Thompson, an increase of about 82 percent is shown. The work in transportation is just beginning to be undertaken. Five cities, Boston, Cleveland, Jersey City, Kansas City, and Providence, have introduced it into their commercial courses, and two other cities, Chicago and Rochester, contemplate including it in their work for next year. Thus it is evident that there is an interest in the developing of a commercial course to include instruction in these two phases of commercial endeavor.

8. The importance of some form of continuation work, or work established where adults and young people who have left school can receive specialized training, has long been recognized by school authorities. While evening work has been looked upon as undesirable from many points of view, it has been widely adopted because no other time or place for such instruction seems available in the existing organization of the educational and economic systems of the community. In the answers to this question some form of evening school work in

commercial training is reported by every city except Springfield (Ill.) which answers "We have tried such courses for adults but with little success." In this work too many of the programs offered contain only a few clerical courses, in many cases poorly coördinated with related work and even with courses in the same work. It is too often carried on in a desultory way in classes very poorly attended. But in some cities where the work is well organized, it is accomplishing much. Cincinnati offers in its evening schools a two-year course that has proved very successful, and Los Angeles includes not only the regular clerical courses, but salesmanship, advertising, and commercial arts. The evening work if rightly conceived and properly carried on can greatly aid the developing program of public commercial education.

9. In answer to this question eleven cities report some kind of part-time work, one contemplates it for "the succeeding year," and nine cities have no form of it. Cleveland, Los Angeles, and Washington have such cooperation in salesmanship only, while Boston, Rochester, Cincinnati, Kansas City, Chicago, and New York City report more or less complete plans for carrying on part-time work in the several branches of education for commerce. These reports show that such work is developing rapidly. The movement is the logical outcome of the attempt to make training for business as practical as possible.

10. Another method of effecting a closer contact between the class-room and commercial enterprise is in the establishment of advisory boards composed of representatives of commerce. This question attempts to determine how many of these boards have been estab-

lished for commercial schools. Six cities report standing advisory committees; one reports such a committee for salesmanship; two report "conferences with business men"; one reports "supervisor of commercial work as a member of the association of commerce"; and eleven report no attempt at enlisting a coöperation of representatives of business. This is only a fair development, and indicates that much more should be done to establish an intimate relationship between public schools and commerce.

The Replies Received from the Second and Third Groups of Cities

The replies to the questions asked of the second and third groups of cities are listed in Table VIII. Whenever possible the answers are recorded exactly as given by the representatives of the several cities.

THE QUESTIONS SUBMITTED TO THE SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE SEVERAL CITIES OF THE SECOND AND THIRD GROUPS.[1]

1. (*a*) What percent of all secondary school pupils in your city are enrolled in one or more commercial, or clerical courses? .....
   (*b*) What percent are specializing in commercial, or clerical courses? .....
2. "Do you have a separate commercial high school, or courses in a general high school or both?" .....

[1] Compare with the questions for first group of cities. The writer acknowledges his indebtedness to Mr. Thompson as in the first list of questions, although certain of the questions have been modified.

3. " Do you segregate the sexes in commercial courses? "
.....

4. (*a*) " Do commercial pupils get related academic work, e.g., commercial English, history, modern languages? " .....
(*b*) If so, are the commercial divisions in academic subjects distinct from other divisions, i.e., from other sections pursuing general high school work? .....

5. Have you shortened, " intensified," commercial courses? .....
If so, what is the length of such courses and what years (grades) do they cover? .....

6. " Is salesmanship a part of your commercial work? "
.....

7. Is transportation, in any of its forms, e.g., telephony, telegraphy, shipping, delivery systems, etc., taught in your commercial curriculum? .....
If so, is it taught as a separate course, or incidentally in other courses? .....

8. Do you have evening classes in commercial education? .....

9. Have you made any attempt to carry on part-time work? .....

10. Do you have an advisory body for your commercial education, i.e., a committee of the board of trade or chamber of commerce, or a similar body? .....
.....

11. (*a*) Do you have a system of vocational guidance?
.....
(b) Of placement? .....

TABLE VIII

Answers from Cities Having from 25,000 to 50,000 Inhabitants

Names of Cities	1		2	3	4		5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
	A	B			A	B							A	B
Montgomery, Alabama.	10%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Little Rock Arkansas.	21%	21%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	...
Meriden, Connecticut.	60%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Sioux City, Iowa.	35%	25%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Topeka, Kansas.	21%	10%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Shreveport, Louisiana.	12%	10%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Separate	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Lewiston, Maine.	43%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Chicopee, Massachusetts.	....	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Newton, Massachusetts.	....	....	Commercial High School (Technical)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Calumet, Michigan.	42%	40%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	...
Kalamazoo, Michigan.	34%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
Orange, New Jersey.	35%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	...
Perth Amboy, New Jersey.	30%	20%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Albany, New York.	31%	31%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Charlotte, North Carolina.	20%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	In English, Arithmetic.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	...	Yes
Hamilton, Ohio.	30%	25%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Zanesville, Ohio.	30%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
New Castle, Pennsylvania.	26%	24%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes

Williamsport, Pennsylvania.	30%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	...	Yes	No	No	No	No
El Paso, Texas.	35%	20%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Odgen, Utah.	25%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	...	...	...
Roanoke, Virginia.	12%	3%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Wheeling, West Virginia.	40%	35%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No

ANSWERS FROM CITIES HAVING FROM 10,000 TO 25,000 INHABITANTS

Selma, Alabama.	....	....	No commercial work.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ansonia, Connecticut.	50%	50%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
Middletown, Connecticut.	38%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	...	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
New London, Connecticut.	20%	....	Both [1]	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Athens, Georgia.	6%	....	Com. Course in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Often	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	...
Waukegan, Illinois.	45%	30%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Correlated	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Vincennes, Indiana.	33%	10%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Atchison, Kansas.	39%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Lawrence, Kansas.	....	....	No commercial work.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Auburn, Maine.	45%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Waterville, Maine.	50%	33%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Adams, Massachusetts.	50%	48%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Northampton, Massachusetts.	47%	31%	One School	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	...	Yes
Sault Ste. Marie, Michigan.	14%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Winona, Minnesota.	25%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No

TABLE VIII — *Continued*

Answers from Cities Having from 10,000 to 25,000 Inhabitants

Names of Cities	1		2	3	4		5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
	A	B			A	B							A	B
Vicksburg, Mississippi.	15%	15%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Sedalia, Missouri.	30%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Helena, Montana.	25%	20%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Philipsburg, New Jersey.	60%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Albuquerque, New Mexico.	22%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Dunkirk, New York.	16%	16%	Commercial Dept.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Hudson, New York.	50%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Middletown, New York.	25%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Greensboro, North Carolina.	15%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Ironton Ohio.	20%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Salem, Oregon.	40%	33%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Meadville, Pennsylvania.	25%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
Jackson, Tennessee.	40%	....	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Rutland, Vermont.	40%	25%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Danville, Virginia.	15%	12%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Eau Claire, Wisconsin.	20%	20%	Com. Courses in General High Sc.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes

[1] Endowed High Schools.

An Interpretation of the Answers from the Second and Third Groups of Cities

1. The answers to the first question show the percentage of pupils taking one or more commercial classes, and the number of those specializing in commercial work. As in the reports of the large cities, this percentage varies greatly, from 3 percent in Roanoke, Va., to the 60 percent in Meriden, Conn., and in Phillipsburg, N. J. The average percentage of pupils enrolled in one or more commercial classes in the second group of cities (25,000 to 50,000 inhabitants) is over 31 percent, and in the third group of cities (10,000 to 25,000 inhabitants) 29.7 percent. These figures are only about 8 percent and 10 percent respectively higher than the average percentage of the pupils specializing in commercial work in each of the groups of the cities, and compare favorably with the same figure (34 percent of number of pupils enrolled) of the larger cities. Hence the problems of commercial education must be considered not only from the standpoint of the high school serving a large student body and backed by the resources of a large city, but must be thought of in connection with the small high school of the smaller cities.

2. The answers to this question show that one city, Newton, Mass., has a technical high school offering commercial work, that two cities, Selma, Ala., and Lawrence, Kan., offer no commercial work, and that the remaining cities report commercial courses in "the general high school." Cities in these two groups would find it very difficult to provide and maintain a separate commercial high school, and would not have enough pupils to justify such expenditure.

3. As the specialized commercial high school is impracticable in the smaller community so in most instances is segregation of the sexes. Newton, Mass., and New London, Conn., are the only cities reporting segregation. The same conditions prevail in the smaller cities as in the larger.

4. In answer to the first part of this question, all cities report related academic work. The answers to the second part of the question show that in most instances, the commercial divisions in academic subjects are not distinct from the divisions pursuing general high school work. Thirteen cities in the second group report distinct divisions for commercial work. This group is inclusive of Perth Amboy, N. J., which answers "for the most part," Albany, N. Y., which answers "not entirely," Charlotte, N. C., and El Paso, Texas, which report distinct classes in English and arithmetic. In the third group twenty-one cities of the twenty-nine do not separate the work. Athens, Ga., answers "in many instances," and Waterville, Me., answers "as far as possible." Only five cities of this group have distinct divisions for related commercial work. The limited number of pupils and the additional expense again are the factors in the way of effecting an organization which permits separate units.

5. This question was asked to ascertain what systems of concentration in unit courses, if any, were used in the high schools of the smaller cities and upon what subjects the emphasis was placed. As in the larger cities, the intensified work is usually given in stenography, shorthand, and typewriting, and in a few instances in bookkeeping. Thirteen cities from both of these last two groups have certain intensified work.

Sioux City, Iowa, has an intensified course in arithmetic in connection with a course in bookkeeping. Dunkirk, N. Y., has a special class in stenography for fourth year students. New London, Conn., offers short courses in typewriting. As in the larger cities, the dominating interest of the small high schools is the developing of the long course. The intensified course has not been accepted for few schools have estimated its value and rightly placed it in the organization of the work.

6 and 7. In the answers to these two questions, it is interesting to note that attempts are being made to offer a course in salesmanship in about half of the cities of the second group, and in one-fourth of the cities of the third group. The courses of study of these cities show a great variance in the organization of the work, but with proper supervision this developing work in salesmanship will probably not only become more unified and of a higher standard but will increase in range of subject matter. Ironton, Ohio, is the only city in the last two groups reporting a course in transportation. Thus only one of the smaller cities has yet introduced any course in transportation into its commercial work.

8. Only thirteen cities from the second group have evening classes in commercial work, and in the third group of cities only eleven are conducting evening work. The commercial work offered in these classes is meagre and poorly coördinated with regular commercial courses or with the needs of the community. Bookkeeping, typewriting, and shorthand are the studies generally offered. Commercial arithmetic and English are next in importance and in only one instance is salesmanship offered. The possibilities of evening work are being overlooked because it has not been considered important, and hence

it has not been well organized to meet the needs of the community. If properly carried on it can greatly aid a developing program of public commercial education.

9. Eight cities in the last two groups have coöperative arrangements for part-time work. Meriden, Conn., reports that this work is handled by placing "special cases" for short periods. The method is very similar to that used by the Boston High School of Commerce. Chicopee, Mass., answers "Yes. During the last half of the senior year students in commercial lines are permitted to work in the business establishments of the city. Upon taking a part-time position the school recitations are continued as before, but preparation is not required except in English and stenography. Near the very end of the year they are permitted to accept full-time commercial positions without detriment to their class standing." Ogden, Utah, and Salem, Ore., have the half-day part-time plan in commercial work, and Jackson, Tenn., has coöperative training classes in office practice and in salesmanship, which train employees of certain commercial enterprises. As in the case of the larger cities, part-time work has been attempted in only a few cases. It is important to note that in the several instances it is successfully undertaken in the smaller cities.

10. Because of the intimate touch of the administrators of schools with the business men in the smaller cities, advisory committees to study the commercial work of the schools and to interest the business men of the community in the schools offering such work have not been established. Not one city in the second and third groups has such a body. New Castle, Pa., answers "Next year." Two cities report "consultation with business men."

No doubt this consultation is carried on in many instances but it does not meet the same need or accomplish the same purpose as a committee which has definite aims and organized work before it. The commercial education in these cities is being denied the advantages of such coöperation.

11. This question was incorporated in the questionnaire to show how many cities in the second and third groups have plans for vocational guidance and systems of placement. It was omitted from the list of questions forwarded to the larger cities because data were already available to show to what extent guidance and placement were being undertaken by them. Fourteen cities in the two latter groups have definite plans of vocational guidance. Ironton, Ohio, reports its plan as "limited," and Waukegon, Ill., as "not well developed." Only two of the schools have classes in "occupations." Several cities indicate that they expect to have some definite work in vocational guidance in the near future. This work seems to be just starting in the smaller cities. Many of the cities report placement systems, and many school executives make a practice of placing pupils. None of the schools have definite plans of following up the employees they place. It is true that in the smaller cities the work of those pupils placed is oftentimes followed through informal reports. But this system, if it may be so designated, does not make the necessary analysis of the weakness of the former pupils, an analysis which is necessary to strengthen the commercial work and better coördinate it with business needs.

Needed Improvements in Commercial Education

The replies to the foregoing questionnaires show that public secondary education for commerce is called upon to care for a large number of pupils, that uncertain attempts are being made to extend the range of the work in order that it may meet current demands more effectively, and that some efforts are being put forth to give pupils the proper conception of the work they are undertaking. There are no definite educational policies in regard to the specialized high school, sex segregation, curriculum content and organization, part-time work, continuation classes or methods of coöperation between the school and the community, but there is a reaching out on the part of those organizing commercial work for that which will bring effective commercial education. In the hesitating development is apparent much confusion which may be accredited to the want of common aims and standards and to the lack of wisely determined policies and well-laid plans of development.

Replies to the fourth question of the questionnaire show that current public education is groping after two distinct principles of education — the disciplinary and cultural ideals of general academic education on the one hand, and the utilitarian standards of technical training on the other. The many different curricula are organized on the compromise ground between these two divergent standards. Hence, the values of the several studies offered in the commercial courses are largely dissipated because they are introduced to serve disparate aims. This situation points to the need of clearly defined aims and clearly established principles for commercial education. The meagre data which the trial

and error methods have produced must be verified and supplemented in order that they may serve as a basis from which to develop a scheme of education for commerce.

The discussion of questions four, six, and seven shows that the range of technical subjects is largely inclusive of clerical studies only. The commercial course of study must consider the growing demands of business. Occupational surveys show that the great number of people engaged in commercial pursuits are employed in lines of work that are not clerical. Not more than about 15 percent of the employees of business houses in New York City and Boston are found in clerical (office) positions, while from 40 percent to 50 percent of the entire force are found in the active or competitive side of business.[1]

This prevailing condition develops the necessity of discriminating between the various occupations in commerce, in order to select those lines for which the commercial course can legitimately give preparation. Not only is the range of subjects important in this connection but the number of students taking the work must be considered.

Comparing the answers to the fourth[2] and tenth questions it is to be noted that the more diversified and advanced commercial programs are found in those cities maintaining the most efficient contact with business. This points to the need of a more complete plan for cooperation between the public schools and commercial enterprises. Too long business has thrown the entire burden of commercial education upon the school, and too

[1] Cf. Thompson, F. V. "Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools." Page 114.

[2] Question 4 interpreted by the study of the several courses.

long the school has been willing to accept a position that excluded it from an intimate knowledge of the business procedure for which it was training.

Current development in commerce and in education demands an active interrelationship between these social agencies, and the most effective means of establishing this active coöperation is through advisory committees and an extensive use of part-time and continuation classes. In the part-time classes, after a brief introductory period, the beginner will spend a part of his time in the first operations of a commercial occupation and the remaining part of his time in the public schools, attempting to correlate in a systematic way the practical experience gained in the commercial pursuit with the technical knowledge and training which the school is able to impart. In the continuation classes the pupil, forced by economic or other reasons to leave school early, will receive the further training he desires.

The interpretation of the answers to the first and eleventh questions, which bring out the number of those being trained for commercial pursuits and the facilities for the vocational direction and guidance of this personnel, directs attention to the need of a complete program of vocational guidance, placement, and follow-up work as an essential part of a well ordered, comprehensive program of commercial education. Certain cities have recognized this need and have not only attempted to overcome the waste to society resulting from misdirected effort, discouragement, and failure, by a plan of counseling, but have included classes in occupations to so familiarize the students with them that they may choose wisely the work they wish to undertake. But these attempts are too few. There needs to be a more

universal incorporation of these agencies as a part of the commercial program. In the study made by the Bureau of Education, as a war emergency measure, only about 16 percent of the public school systems answering the questionnaire "reported vocational bureaus, employment departments, or similar devices for placing pupils." And even a smaller number reported a definite system of guidance.[1]

The limitations of the commercial work as discussed in the above paragraphs point out the need of a definite system of State and Federal aid and supervision. The expansion necessary in the range of work offered, the establishment of part-time classes and continuation work, the carrying on of vocational guidance, placement and following up systems, and the standardization necessary that the work may be effectively coördinated with like education in the several parts of the country, these and other requirements call for a more thorough and wider supervision, and a greater expenditure of money than can be met by most local communities.

The Federal Government has for many years aided certain forms of agricultural education. At the present time the Smith-Hughes Act extends Federal aid and supervision to industrial education, home economics, and gives increased aid to agricultural education, but it does not include definite provision for commercial education except in the case of certain part-time classes. In his latest report the United States Commissioner of Education advocates an appropriation of approximately $3,000,000 per year to be set aside for commercial education by the Federal Government.

[1] Bulletin No. 24, 1918, Department of the Interior. Page 36.
[2] National Society for Vocational Education, Bulletin No. 29, Page 14.

This would be in addition to the amounts allowed by the Smith-Hughes Act which controls the standards set up for instruction by reimbursing those states which submit the qualifications for teachers in commercial branches. In the long run this standardization of the requirements for teachers must determine the effectiveness of the work offered.

CHAPTER V

THE COMMERCIAL EDUCATION SURVEY

The need of data upon which to formulate plans, and establish principles of commercial education, has been pointed out in the discussion of the current conditions. That this need has been recognized is shown by the number of investigations, within the past decade, which have had for their purpose the collecting of such data. The most important of those which have investigated the field of commercial education are the New York City Survey (1912), the Cleveland Survey (1916), the Minneapolis Survey (1916), the Richmond (Ind.) Survey (1916), the Missouri Commercial Education Survey (1916), the Indianapolis Survey (1917), and the Oakland Survey (1919). In most instances, however, the amount of time and effort expended on these studies has not been commensurate with the importance of commercial education, and has resulted in weaknesses which sometimes verge on inaccuracy. In the Missouri and New Mexico surveys, the results are based on too limited a conception of the meaning of commercial education. In the Richmond Survey, the data gathered cannot be interpreted into commercial education terms. In the Cleveland Survey, the results are deduced from findings interpreted from too local a standpoint to have a maximum value for the purposes of commercial education. And only in a few cases, and then only indirectly, have any

of these studies taken into consideration the temper, attitude, and fundamental aspirations of the personnel which commercial education seeks to train.

The present chapter is an attempt to suggest principles and lines of investigation for conducting a commercial education survey, which will overcome the above weaknesses and furnish the means for obtaining ample and effective data. In order to formulate such an inquiry as clearly as possible it will be divided into four parts; (1) the development and organization of business; (2) the commercial personnel of the community; (3) the facilities for commercial education and (4) summary.

The Development and Organization of Business

In order to evaluate correctly the current development and organization of business it must be recognized that the business of a community develops according to economic demand. It is largely the product of a haphazard attempt on the part of individuals and groups to supply the wants of the community and in so doing to earn a livelihood. In this sense business is a process of selective evolution; the fittest businesses survive.

Throughout its development, commerce is dependent upon natural resources and upon industry. For example the commerce of Pittsburgh at an early date could be summed up as caring for the several phases of water transportation. This city was the distributing center for "the river highways." But today its commerce is only thought of in terms of caring for industrial activity. Many like developments throughout the nation are causing constant change in commercial organization.

So it comes about that in many communities, there survive, as the result of a momentum gained in the past, commercial enterprises that are struggling to maintain a position against an ebbing demand. Again, many commercial enterprises are inauspiciously located from their beginning. These dissipate the commercial morale of the community by commanding a certain amount of attention and support that should be given to other enterprises. Still other factors that must be considered in an attempt to analyze the current commercial activities of any community are those changing social forces that from time to time determine new adjustments between commercial activity and the government, the international politics that react upon business policies, and the prevailing business conditions that point to increasing or decreasing commercial activity. It is such a background that will furnish the basis for the interpretation of the local commercial conditions, that will estimate the stability of the commercial enterprises, and provide an estimate of their further development.

As a method of carrying on this part of the investigation the field should be carefully organized according to the groups of facts pertinent to the objectives of the survey. Such an organized outline would include a complete description of the community to be studied. For example, Boston and New York owing to their location are both large exporting centers. This is the reason each of these cities offers " foreign trade " as a study in its commercial high school. Similarly, facts descriptive of transportation facilities or of the character of industries should be carefully considered under the description of the community studied. The measurement of the trade of the community is another phase of this part

of the survey, for it shows whether the commercial activity of the community is increasing or decreasing. Another essential group of data are the descriptions of the commercial activities of the community under which would be given

1. The different types of commercial and industrial enterprises such as:

a. Wholesale establishments
b. Retail stores
c. Public utilities
d. Banking Institutions
e. Civil Service Positions
f. Telephone, and
g. Telegraph Systems
h. Railroads and street railways
i. Transportation, other means of
j. The small offices
k. Manufacturing Plants

2. The number of employees engaged in each, and
3. The standards of efficiency demanded of the employees.

The data for such a study of the commercial activities of the community can be obtained from two sources, hereinafter designated as the "primary" and "secondary" sources. The primary sources are those that contribute data from an intimate study by the investigator of the fields of commercial activity. The secondary sources include tables already compiled, estimates made, and all printed material available, pertinent to the subjects under consideration. Much duplication of effort and needless expense can be avoided by gathering care-

fully, at the beginning of the investigation, all available secondary sources. The part of the survey dealing with the description of the local community and the measurement of trade can be covered by these secondary sources. These estimates have usually been brought together by some agency in the community, as the Board of Trade or Chamber of Commerce, and need but be gathered in a form that will make them readily available for the work under consideration.

The study of the commercial activities of the community may be carried out in either of two ways. The first is the method of the Cleveland Survey. It requires visiting several of the representative commercial institutions. The second method, in some ways more efficient when rightly carried out, is the use of a questionnaire [1] for ascertaining the activities and needs of the different commercial enterprises. The list of questions should be definitely and clearly outlined in the light of the aims of the survey, and forwarded to the several commercial houses for their answers. Every attempt should be made to stay away as far as possible from certain intimate and particularized details of each business, so that the business man will feel free to answer the questions of the study, and yet the list must be comprehensive enough to procure the data upon which to formulate a program of education which will ultimately be of maximum service to the community.

[1] The use of the questionnaire insures a large range of answers at a minimum expenditure of time and money. Further, it meets the needs of the business man better in that he can answer the questions at the time he can best spare. A certain amount of verification by original investigation, is always necessary, but a well thought out list of questions reduces this work to a minimum.

The best way to draw up such a questionnaire, is to formulate it in conjunction with a committee of business men of the Chamber of Commerce or with a similar organization, so that a general understanding of the aims, methods, and specific problems may be reached. Much aid can be given by such a body, not only in planning the questionnaire but also in obtaining full coöperation with the study.[1]

The answers to the questionnaire should enumerate and define the several commercial occupations of the community. From these data functional groupings can be organized so that the actual number of employees as well as the description and enumeration of the several positions will be available. The method of grouping is suggested by the following lists:

Office Managing
- Executive positions
- Managerial positions
- Secretaryships
- Treasurerships

Supervising
- Supervisory positions
- Floor-walking positions
- Time clerkships
- Cost production clerkships
- Routing clerkships

Accounting
- Senior accountantships
- Junior accountantships

[1] The New York City Chamber of Commerce attempted such a study and brought together data that were of great value to the commercial education program of that city. Report of June 27, 1917.

Bookkeeping positions
Cashiers' positions
Paymasters' positions
Statistical clerkships
Auditing positions

Clerking
Stenographic positions
Mail clerkships
Filing and indexing clerkships
Information clerkships
Machine working positions
Translating clerkships
Telephone and telegraph operating
Proof-reading clerkships

Assembling
Buying positions

Transporting
Traffic managing positions
Shipping clerkships
Routing clerkships
Railway clerkships

Storing
Store-keeping positions
Stores managing positions
Stores clerkships
Stock clerkships
Receiving clerkships
Invoice clerkships
Scale clerkships

Assuming of Risks
Insurance managing
Inspecting clerkships
Claim adjusters
Claim clerkships

Financing
- Treasureships
- Credit positions
- Financial clerkships
- Collecting

Rearranging
- Sorting positions
- Grading positions
- Inspecting positions

Selling
- Salesmanagement positions
- Advertising positions
- Sales clerkships
- Canvassing
- Solicitorships

The above lists are inclusive of a very few commercial positions only, and they are therefore suggestive and not exhaustive. Such groupings of the commercial activities of the community will allow an exact estimate to be made of the range of the several lines of occupations.

A more thorough analysis of the data concerning the positions designated by the survey should establish the standards of accomplishment expected of the persons engaged therein. For example, it is evident that a study of retail salesmanship will show that with very few exceptions the qualifications expected of the sales people in the several dry goods houses of the community will approximate the same standards. This is likewise true of the positions held by stenographers, by telephone operators (manual), and by railway clerks. Similarly a study of many managerial positions and of buying positions will show that they tend towards the same standards and methods. Thus, through obtaining defi-

nite descriptions of the different positions, groupings can be made, and definite common standards established for each of the several groups. The several specific fields of commercial activity can be so organized that a definite educational program can be effected which will meet the needs of those occupied in the positions listed under them.

The beginnings of such a study may be found in a bulletin, published by the United States Department of Labor,[1] which gives a description of the several office occupations and of the qualifications necessary for them. The objection to the "job specifications" in this bulletin is that they are not specific enough as to the several qualifications needed to meet the demand of the jobs. They are, primarily, descriptive of the procedure and only indirectly set up standards of ability.

The following is illustrative of a "specification" used for a department store.

> The Manager: "The manager is a erchandising executive. He directs the buying and selling of merchandise through buyers and heads of departments. The advertising manager and display men are also responsible to him for their work. He determines the kind of merchandise the store shall carry, the division of merchandise among departments, the amount of stock to be carried, and the advertising policy to be used for the store. The manager knows markets and merchandise: he understands business conditions: and he knows how to interpret the sales, losses, and demands of the business he directs. To be a successful executive, the manager must be a student of merchandising and business conditions. He must have sufficient knowledge of accounting to understand the

[1] United States Department of Labor, "Description of Occupations, Office Employees," Washington, 1918.

statements of the firm. In addition to the larger business qualifications he must have ability to deal with buyers and heads of departments." [1]

This specification emphasizes the need of objective standards by which to judge the qualifications of commercial employees. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company (New York), one of the earliest commercial houses to recognize this need, called in experts to establish such standards and has worked for some time under these norms.

Broader standards for clerical occupations have been formulated by the National Associated Schools of Scientific Business. These standards serve as bases for the specific tests of ability and are treated later in the chapter. Under this standardization the requirements for bookkeeping are divided into three elements:

> The first element is accuracy and speed in handling figures. The most important operations are adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing whole numbers; multiplying certain common fractions by short cut methods and otherwise; and using decimals in percentage.
>
> The second element is ability to make records on business blanks, such as invoice forms of some complication.
>
> The third element required is the analysis and classification of accounts, as in journalizing or ledger posting.

The standards are based upon actual business needs and can be applied to the class work of public schools or private classes, and meet, in part, the requirements of the clerical positions of commerce. These same principles should be extended and applied to the several

[1] Vocational Education Survey of Richmond. Page 288.

lines of merchandising pursuits as well. The lack of objective standards has not only been costly to commerce, but has retarded the development of commercial education, for the schools have known only in a partial way what qualifications business activities demanded of their employees.

The next results obtained from the data of the questionnaire should be the actual number of workers employed in each occupation, as well as the relative proportion in each line. These are factors in establishing the actual demand in the several lines of commerce. They ultimately have their effect upon the range of subjects taught in the schools and the proportion of pupils training in the different courses. The following classification of persons engaged in commercial occupations gives the proportions of those engaged in the several commercial pursuits of the United States, and is offered as suggestive of method.

TABLE IX

THE RELATIVE NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN COMMERCIAL OCCUPATIONS: BASED UPON THE FIGURES GIVEN BY THIRTEENTH CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1910.[1]

Occupation	*Total*	*Male*	*Female*
I. TRANSPORTATION	33.01%	31.68%	1.33%
A. Water transportation	1.74	1.74	——
B. Road and Street transportation[2]	7.70	7.69	.01
C. Railroad Transportation	16.60	15.54	.06
D. Express, Post, Telegraph, and Telephone	3.93	2.71	1.22
E. Other transportation	4.04	4.00	.04

[1] United States Census, 1910. Volume IV. Page 93–94.

[2] Not inclusive of teamsters.

Occupation	*Total*	*Male*	*Female*
II. Trade	45.25	39.39	5.86
A. Bankers, Brokers, and Money Lenders	1.33	1.30	.03
B. Clerks in Stores[1]	4.85	3.45	1.40
C. Commercial travelers	2.05	2.02	.03
D. Decorators, Window dressers	.06	.05	.01
E. Deliverymen	2.87	2.87	—
F. Floorwalkers, Foremen, etc.	.26	.22	.04
G. Inspectors, Gaugers, etc.	.17	.15	.02
H. Insurance agents	1.22	1.19	.03
I. Laborers (Yards, Warehouses)	1.02	1.01	.01
J. Porters, Helpers in stores	1.28	1.23	.05
K. Newsboys	.37	.37	—
L. Proprietors, Officials, Mgrs.[2]	.28	.27	.01
M. Real-estate agents, Officials	1.58	1.54	.04
N. Retail Dealers	14.96	14.11	.85
O. Salesmen, saleswomen	11.53	8.30	3.23
P. Undertakers	.26	.25	.01
Q. Wholesale dealers	.64	.63	.01
R. Other pursuits	.52	.43	.09
III. Clerical Occupations	21.74	14.32	7.42
A. Agents, Canvassers, Collectors	1.32	1.21	.11
B. Bookkeepers, Cashiers, Accountants	6.09	3.75	2.34
C. Clerks (except in stores)	9.02	7.48	1.54
D. Messengers, Office Boys[3]	1.35	1.21	.14
E. Stenographers, Typewriters	3.96	.67	3.29

[1] Many of the clerks in stores are evidently salesmen and saleswomen.

[2] Not otherwise specified.

[3] Except telephone and telegraph messengers.

The demand for workers is not only to be based upon the numbers engaged in the several commercial occupations, but must take into consideration the labor turnover in them. The Vocational Education Survey of Richmond makes an attempt to analyze the labor turnover situation of that city and approaches the commercial field in the listing of department store employees.

TABLE X

PERCENT OF EMPLOYEES, BY SEX, WHO HAVE BEEN IN RETAIL STORE EMPLOYMENT EACH SPECIFIED NUMBER OF YEARS[1]

Years in retail stores	Percent employees rep't years in retail store								
	Males			Females			Total		
	Dept. Stores	Specialty Stores	All Stores	Dept. Stores	Specialty Stores	All Stores	Dept. Stores	Specialty Stores	All Stores
Under 1½ years	39.3	....	24.4	25.4	27.6	26.6	27.7	25.0	26.3
1½ years and under 4½ years	28.6	23.5	26.7	40.5	33.1	36.5	38.6	32.2	35.3
4½ years and under 9½ years	17.8	23.5	20.0	25.4	20.9	22.9	24.1	21.1	22.5
9½ years and over	14.3	53.0	28.9	8.7	18.4	14.0	9.6	21.7	15.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] "Vocational Education Survey of Richmond. Page 242."

The duration of service of employees in the stores as shown by this table is short in comparison with the productive years of life. Fifty-one and one-tenth per cent of the men and 63.1 percent of the women had been at work less than four and one-half years. Over 26 percent were employed less than one and one-half years. This means a constant demand, in Richmond, for salesmen and saleswomen. The cost of such a

"turnover" has perhaps never been definitely estimated by the managers of the several stores. Data concerning labor turnover are needed, not only to help establish the demand for trained workers, but also for use in the training of executives.

The supply of commercial labor available should be ascertained by the answers to the questionnaire. When looked at from the standpoint of the employer, this has two aspects, the amount of labor available, and the quality of the services offered. The former is easily estimated; the latter the employer wants to know when the applicant comes to him. Business has found that testing applicants for a position in the hurry and excitement of the first moments of application is unwise, and that to estimate the ability of the employees later is proving too costly. The schools should offer to those they train a certificate of ability based upon standard objective tests. The firms would accept this standard rating in considering applicants for positions. The method presents the necessity, not only of standards of accomplishment, but of a complete system of placement and follow-up work. These are suggestive of recommendations that should be included in a survey that is to obtain data upon which to effect an efficient commercial education program.

Again, the data supplied by the questionnaire should reveal the conditions under which work is done. This will enable the student (through vocational guidance) to know about the actual conditions of business before he is thrust into them. The materials obtained from this part of the survey when properly organized are not only of value in vocational guidance but also in motivating the technical work of the class-room. Again this part of the survey should raise the standards of work-

ing conditions by portraying actual practice and suggesting certain improvements and standardizations.

Questions referring to the training of employees by commercial enterprises should bring out what education is needed in a special field and whether a coöperative arrangement for part-time work could be successfully effected between the school and the business.

The last part of the questionnaire should furnish the business man's estimate of current educational facilities. Answers to this section should give certain prevalent opinions, which in the aggregate, will be of value in estimating the effectiveness of the training offered. They should bring out the weaknesses of the commercial work and should help to establish new courses, or point out necessary readjustments in the current courses.

Thus the study of the development and organization of business estimates the activities of the specific locality in the light of the broader business tendencies of which they are a part; it defines the extent of current organization and development of the local enterprises; it determines the standards of procedure and the needs of business. These data will afford one group of factors to be considered in establishing the range of the commercial course, the content of the subjects, the organization of the curricula, the establishment and organization of part-time and continuation classes, as well as aid in motivating class-room work, and in bringing about effective vocational guidance, placement, and follow-up work.

The Commercial Personnel of a Community

The Cleveland survey[1] through an analysis of the commercial positions points out that there are certain "opportunities" in commercial lines and that classes should be organized to train for them, as though immediate definite training to supply these needs followed as a matter of course. The supposition is that the data obtained from a systematic investigation of the commercial occupations of a community are sufficient to make recommendations for establishing commercial education. There are two fundamental objections to this tenet. It leaves out of account the individual — his temper and fundamental aspirations, and it savors of the commodity theory of labor.

This overemphasis on the needs of commerce has come about very naturally, for the commercial problem of the past decades has been the solving of the methods and means of production. Today with these more or less settled, the problem becomes one that involves human relationships, a part of the dominating problem of living together.

The commercial personnel of a community, difficult of analysis because it is composed of human beings, presents the most vital problem for consideration in an inquiry with the purpose of gathering data upon which to base educational facilities to serve it. The aim of this section of the survey is to study the individuals that make up the working force of commerce, to know how this force is employed, to estimate the earning

[1] Stevens, B. M. "Boys and Girls in Commercial Work." A volume of the Cleveland Survey.

capacity of the workers in the several occupations, to establish a relationship between training and efficiency as determined by salaries paid, to find out the education necessary to accomplish certain work, to estimate the standards of living, to know about the attitude of the personnel toward its employment, and to determine its fundamental aspirations. The methods to be used in this part of the study are very similar to those described in the first part of the survey.

An analysis of this field, in order to effect an organized study, would suggest such topics for inquiry as the character of the population, nationality, homogeneous and heterogeneous elements, social, economic, and educational ideals; the number of people in the community; the supply of commercial workers, under which would be considered the sources of supply and the number of workers trained annually by the schools and in apprentice positions; and the classification of commercial workers. The topic last suggested would include such divisions as types of work done, classification as to incomes, as to age and sex and as to length of service, and educational qualifications as fixed by the experience of this personnel. The greater part of the topics treated in this study can be developed from secondary sources, for most of the material is already compiled and only needs to be brought together in an available form for interpretation in relation to the special problem. The studies carried out to effect a classification of the commercial workers will be most successfully accomplished by an original investigation. Such an investigation may start in a very limited way, but by systematic addition from time to time it can soon become very extensive. There are two methods of procedure in the study of this

classification of commercial workers: One is to select certain representative groups from each of the several lines and then from time to time to increase the number in the groups until all workers are included; the other is to take all the workers in a single line of commercial activity, and then as time will permit add one line of work after another until the entire field is covered. The method selected depends upon the immediate aims of the survey. The first method will give quicker results, but the latter method requiring more time, will give more thorough results.

The questionnaire used in obtaining these data should be prepared by a committee composed of representatives of the Chamber of Commerce, of the workers, and of the schools. The representatives of the workers should be selected from the several bodies of organized labor. This, as in the case of the questionnaire to the employers, would make the survey more generally understood, and the questionnaire more generally complied with.

The fields of such a questionnaire are at once limited to the vocational life of the commercial personnel and the educational needs of the vocation. Data concerning certain social elements vitally affecting the worker cannot be obtained by a questionnaire, for there are no accepted forms by which to judge them.

Topics such as the home life of workers, how they spend their leisure time, and what is their mental attitude toward present day problems, may be reached more effectively through the observation of the survey workers. These studies well carried out are a necessity in establishing educational aims for an efficient program of commercial training.

The results of the study of the commercial personnel of the community should give the characteristics of the groups of workers in the business field; they should show where such workers are employed, and in what light they consider their employment. They should give a definite evaluation of the returns for the several lines of commercial employment, and show where the maximum salaries are reached. They should point out the elements necessary to a successful career in the several commercial activities. They should determine how much assistance the educational facilities of the community afford the worker, and wherein such training should be improved to meet the standards expected of him.

Facilities for Commercial Education

The survey, so far, has treated the aims, methods, and means of commerce, and has further estimated the needs of commercial activities; it has considered the occupations engaged in by the commercial personnel, the methods used by the workers in their occupations and their estimate of the commercial activities, as well as their ambitions, desires, and limitations; it must now treat a third group of elements — the facilities for commercial education. This part of the survey will determine how well the training offered meets the needs established in the former sections of the survey, and these deductions will form the basis for the recommendations concerning the commercial education program.

There will be found in the community three classes of institutions offering commercial training, the public schools, the semi-public schools, and the private institutions.

Facilities for Commercial Training:

- The Public Schools
  - Elementary training
  - Junior high schools
  - High schools
  - Evening schools
  - Part-time classes
- Semi-public Schools
  - Y.M.C.A. commercial classes
  - Y.W.C.A. commercial classes
  - Institutes offering commercial work
- Private Institutions
  - The business college
  - Correspondence schools
  - Corporation classes
  - Church schools

The study of the several phases of the work given by each of the institutions should be directed by the same aims; the methods of procedure need only be changed in so far as the demands of the semi-public and private schools necessitate. Past surveys have given too little attention to semi-public and private schools. These institutions occupy a very definite place in the commercial program of a community, and will continue to hold such a place so long as public educational systems are organized on their present basis. Hence a survey of commercial education facilities must give them the consideration their importance demands.

The purpose of the study of commercial education facilities is to ascertain as definitely as possible, the precise and definite aims of the institutions training for

commerce; the essential equipment, both physical and instructional, through which they hope to achieve the aims; the plans for the development of such equipment; and the cost for each instruction unit: When such studies have been made they have been usually too limited and have had too great a variety of aims.

Whatever methods are used for studying the school systems, in addition to the above suggestions particular emphasis should be placed upon certain of the phases of the study appertaining to school attendance, to the quality of instruction, to vocational guidance, and to opportunities for continuing education after the school period. This part of the study will not attempt to discuss in detail the methods of a school survey. It offers the following outline in order to suggest certain emphases and to give a continuity to the topics which are briefly commented upon in the following paragraphs. Many admirable discussions and suggestions for the carrying out of this part of the survey are to be found in the list of works suggested in the notes.[1]

[1] The following survey reports and discussions are offered as being suggestive of means and methods for this part of the survey:

Bliss, Don C. "Methods and Standards for Local School Surveys," Chap. V to VIII inclusive.

Cubberly, Elwood P. "The Portland Survey," Pts. II & IV.

Davis, Calvin O. "High School Courses of Study," Chapters II, III, and V.

Judd, Charles H. "Measuring the Work of the Public Schools," Cleveland Survey.

Smith, H. B. "Establishing Industrial Schools." Chap. II.

Strayer, George D. "Some Problems in City School Administration," Chap. VI to VIII inclusive.

Thompson, F. V. "Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools," Chap. V and VI.

Educational Facilities for Commercial Training in the Public Schools

1. A general study of the public schools:
   - *a.* The schools;
     - (1) Organization and administration
   - *b.* Legislation affecting school attendance;
     - (1) National and state
       - (*a*) Attendance laws
       - (*b*) Child labor laws
       - (*c*) Regulations of state departments
     - (2) Local
       - (*a*) Enactments
       - (*b*) Regulations of Board of Education
       - (*c*) Enforcement
2. Provisions for Commercial Education:
   - *a.* Prevocational work in the schools;
     - (1) Preparation for commercial work in the lower grades
       - (*a*) Aims of present system
       - (*b*) System of instruction, how adapted
       - (*c*) Measurement of instruction
       - (*d*) Attendance
   - *o.* Vocational guidance;
     - (1) School organization as related to vocational guidance
       - (*a*) Flexibility of courses
       - (*b*) Use of prevocational and continuation work
       - (*c*) Placing responsibility upon the child
     - (2) Use of vocational guidance possibilities in the school program
       - (*a*) Adaptation of material in program
       - (*b*) Course in vocations
     - (3) Vocational counseling
     - (4) Guidance through associations

c. Commercial work in the secondary schools;
(1) Day schools
(*a*) Intermediate schools
(*b*) High schools
(2) Evening schools

In the above study particular attention should be given to the organization and administration of schools only in so far as the commercial work is affected by them. Too often poor organization hampers the work and development of commercial departments. The commercial high school program must permit of greater freedom than the regular academic program. Part-time work is likely to demand irregular attendance, either at irregular intervals such as special sales days or the holiday seasons, or on regular recurring days of the week or alternate weeks as is carried out in such cities as Rochester and Cincinnati. Schedules must be arranged to care for this irregularity.

The amount of money spent for the maintenance of commercial classes should be carefully ascertained. This cost should be compared with that of classes in the several other departments of the schools, not in order to equalize them, but to establish an exact and relative cost of this phase of vocational work. This estimate should be based upon the cost per "student hour," which is the most satisfactory unit of comparison, as it includes "general," "overhead," "maintenance," "supervisory," and "instructional" costs. The efficiency of instruction has, in a general way only, been compared with the cost of instruction. In most cases, the estimates are so general that they are meaningless. Costs should be so segregated that they become a definite factor in rating the work of the different classes.

Legislation affecting school attendance and child labor should be given definite consideration. Many admirable statutes are now in existence, but many more are needed. The survey should determine whether present laws are sufficient and whether they are efficiently administered and enforced.

The courses of study of elementary schools will show the provisions made for prevocational work, and further, will point out the aims of such instruction. These should be carefully estimated. The efficiency of instruction in the fundamental studies can be ascertained by applying certain well known tests. Careful consideration should be given to the standards in these lower grades in order to determine whether they are properly coördinated with those to be held in the more advanced work.

The vocational guidance system should be subjected to close study in order to ascertain whether it is meeting the needs of the pupils by using every facility available in the current educational system. In case there is no existing system of vocational guidance every possible source of information should be considered, with the view of gathering data upon which to establish a strong guidance program.

In treating commercial work in the Junior High Schools, and High Schools, the survey will have four important phases to cover, the organization, the equipment, the course of study and time schedule, and the efficiency of the instruction.

The organization of the school or department should be studied from the two sides, the administrative and the supervisory. It is not merely sufficient for the survey to describe these two phases of the work. It should make every effort to test the efficiency of the systems

in use, to determine how well they are giving the service expected of them.

The equipment can be compared with available standards. The class-rooms and buildings as a whole can be measured by the "Strayer score card"[1] or similar scale and the office equipment compared with standard equipment offered for use by office furnishing houses. A study of several commercial departments in public secondary schools showed that certain standard office equipment was being used, but that there was not enough variance as to types. One teacher of typewriting, indicating a certain standard machine, pointed out with much pride that "at last we have been able to get all ——— typewriters." This teacher did not remember that the students would be called upon to use any one machine of several makes, and that they were being offered no chance to become familiar with different machines. Much effort should be made to obtain the best equipment and to use it in the most practical way possible.

The survey should evaluate the aims of the courses given, and if they are not correctly established, recommend the necessary changes. Too often courses have been adopted merely because they have been used elsewhere, and such courses can only by chance meet the needs of the community they seek to serve. An adequate estimate of the courses of study must determine the comprehensiveness of present courses and the lines of development to be followed; it must estimate whether the right emphasis is being given to

[1] Strayer, George D. "Score Card for City School Buildings." See Bliss, Don C. "Methods and Standards for Local Surveys." Page 125.

the several subjects, whether the subject matter handled is taken from the best available material, and whether the work offered is adapted to the needs of the pupils; those who are able to take a four-year course and those who have but a limited time to spend in preparation.

The efficiency of instruction can only be exactly determined by objective tests which have been standardized upon the actual demands of commercial activity, and which have been used with a sufficiently large number of pupils to provide norms of a reasonable degree of accuracy. The "National Commercial Tests" attempt to measure objectively the efficiency of commercial instruction. The method in which the tests are given makes them adapted to class-room work. The time for handling them is adapted to the class period of forty minutes, and they are so constructed that they register the amount of progress made by each pupil. The forms are adapted so that the pupil can have an exact record of his achievements. The work is begun with a test and the ability of the pupils recorded; then at stated intervals, advanced forms of the test are given and the results tabulated. When a subject is taken up for the first time and none of its elements are known, a certain amount of time is allowed before giving the first test. "In typewriting the first test should be given as soon as the key-board exercises have been completed, and the whole machine covered so that a business letter may be copied. The test may show a net speed of only seven or eight words a minute, but it offers a point from which to measure progress."[1]

The results are recorded on the following form:

[1] Cody, Sherwin. "Commercial Tests and How to use Them." Page 71.

DIAGRAM IV

Subject	Opening Test	Final Test	Improvement	Time in Class

While tests are available for clerical instruction, objective standards and tests will have to be established for the merchandising lines, executive and sales positions. Testing the efficiency of instruction on this basis not only determines the advance of the classes, but should make possible the coördination of the standards of the class work with the business needs.

The survey of the evening schools will follow very much the procedure that has been suggested for the regular day classes in commercial education. The following outline is suggestive of scope and emphasizes the problems peculiar to evening school work, which are discussed in Chapter IX.

EVENING SCHOOLS:

I. Courses Offered in Commercial Subjects:
   - *A.* Number of classes in each subject
   - *B.* Enrollment in each class
   - *C.* Study of attendance
   - *D.* Number of sessions each week
   - *E.* Length of terms

II. Entrance Requirements:
   - *A.* Age
   - *B.* Scholarship
   - *C.* Experience

III. Methods of Obtaining Pupils:
- *A.* Advertising
- *B.* Soliciting
- *C.* Correspondence
- *D.* Other Methods, (community evenings, dances, etc.)

IV. Times for Admitting Pupils:
- *A.* Regular periods of registration
- *B.* Admittance at any time

V. Tuition for Instruction:
- *A.* Lesson, course, or term
- *B.* Additional fees, if any
- *C.* Tools, supplies, texts furnished
- *D.* Cost to student

VI. Instruction:
- *A.* Lecture, class, or individual
- B. Number of studies that may be taken each term
- *C.* Equipment of school for carrying on work
- *D.* Text books used in each class
- *E.* Description of examination system
- *F.* Certification given
  1. Value of:
     - *a.* In courses
     - *b.* In other schools
     - *c.* In securing positions

VII. Placement and Follow-up Work:
- *A.* Records kept
- *B.* Methods used
  1. Relations with employers
  2. Coöperation with other agencies

The problem of coöperation with the community needs particular emphasis in any evening school program. The first and most important phase of this problem is adapt-

ing the evening school work to the needs of those who want a short course of technical training, such as a course in bookkeeping, shorthand, typewriting, or salesmanship. The second phase is that of direct coöperation with the commercial activities of the community. In this case, the school offers special training classes for specific branches of commercial activity, and further, acts as a definite source of labor supply. Thus the survey, besides considering the entrance, attendance, and instruction problems, must determine how far evening school work coöperates with the interests of the community in which it is located, and wherein this cooperation may be strengthened.

Semi-public Schools and Private Institutions

In making the survey of semi-public and private institutions the same problems as in the public schools, except for certain modifications, will be met. The same methods and standards may be applied to the study. The study of semi-public institutions would include Young Men's Christian Association classes, and classes of institutions of a like nature. The study of private institutions would include business colleges, correspondence schools, corporation schools and academies. In most respects the survey of the private institutions will be more easily carried out than in the case of the public schools. Aims of private institutions are in most cases more specific, the facilities not so extensive, and the costs, if available, more readily figured from the books of the school.

The survey should make particular inquiry into the special opportunities offered by this type of institution. These should be thoroughly analyzed, and used to en-

lighten the boys and girls about the efficiency of the work offered, and to point out certain needs in the public school commercial program.

The study of the private business college should determine the extent of solicitation for pupils, and how it is carried on. This can be accomplished by interviewing those pupils leaving the eighth grade, who have decided to enter and have registered at private commercial schools. Again the study may be made by selecting at random certain freshmen in the public high school, and inquiring of them how much they were solicited, and what advantages were offered them to enter private business colleges.

The correspondence courses should receive attention in the survey, for they offer training in a large number of the commercial branches. Just how many commercial workers have taken some of these courses, will have been brought out in the study of the commercial personnel. It is well established that a large percentage of courses attempted are never completed, although they have been entirely paid for. The survey should show the value and the true function of correspondence schools in the local educational scheme.

A survey of the corporation classes should estimate the work of preparation of employees, and attempt to establish a basis for coöperation between the public school system and commercial enterprise. Further it should determine which of the following plans is most efficient in the community, direct training in the public school commercial classes, or work in a part-time class established in the commercial enterprise.

The survey of the educational facilities for commercial training offered by religious bodies should employ

the methods used in the survey of other private schools. In all cases, particular attention should be given to the quality of instruction, and an attempt made to determine the aims which are peculiar to such institutions.

The concluding statement in regard to semi-public and private schools should express the findings and recommendations of the survey as to aims, methods, means and standards of the institutions but more especially as to their place in the program of commercial education in the community. It should definitely estimate and base recommendations upon:

(1) The present functions of such institutions.

(2) Whether any of their methods are detrimental to the good of the student, the vocation, or the public.

(3) If found detrimental or wasteful in any way, the best method of dealing with them.

The survey of the educational facilities for commercial training will give the range, the aims, and the standards of the work offered in the several schools of the community. It should definitely evaluate the current means for achieving the aims and standards, and should give the provisions made for developing the work as the demands increase. It should give the costs of commercial instruction in the several institutions. It should describe the special work done in the evening schools, and evaluate the part-time work. It should study the special inducements and methods used in the semi-public and private schools. To summarize, this study should determine how far the commercial facilities for education are meeting the social and commercial needs of the community, and should point out the adjustments and changes necessary to establish an efficient system of commercial education.

Summary

The summary of the survey, the written report, will give the purpose of the survey; it will bring together the conclusions of the several studies — the findings concerning the organization and development of local business, and the commercial personnel of the community, and the essential descriptions of the educational facilities.

The results of these studies should be so formulated that they will be readily understood by interested lay readers. The findings of the several chapters of the body of the report should be incorporated in a summary which forms a complete unit. This can be issued separately from the technical chapters to those interested in effecting an efficient program for commercial education.

CHAPTER VI

AN ANALYSIS OF THE CONTENT AND ORGANIZATION OF CURRENT CURRICULA OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF COMMERCE

An analysis of the 102 programs and courses of study of the seventy-two cities whose commercial work is described in Chapter III gives data that are representative of current practice in regard to the content and organization of secondary commercial curricula. Of these courses the shortest is a one-term course in bookkeeping and typewriting offered by El Paso, Texas. The other one, two, three, and four-year courses offered by the various cities group themselves as shown in Table XI.

TABLE XI

Relative Importance of the Length of Commercial Courses as Shown by a Study of 102 Courses of Study.

Length of Course	*Percent of Number Studied*
1 year	7%
2 years	22%
3 years	12%
4 years	59%

The introduction of the one and two-year courses in commercial work has been due to an attempt to solve the problem of the pupils leaving in the beginning high school years. The two-year courses (and one-year

courses) when offered in the first two years of the high school, usually allot a large proportion of time to commercial subjects in order to hold the pupils who would otherwise leave school and go to business college or take up any available job. The two-year courses offered in the last two years of the high school after two years of academic work may be considered as "hang over" organizations from that earlier period when public demand forced the general academic organization to include certain commercial subjects. The few three-year courses can be accounted for, in most instances, as the result of the three-year high-school organization. Mr. F. G. Nichols summarizes a discussion of the relative importance and desirability of short and long commercial courses by saying, "the surest way to encourage elementary school boys and girls to be satisfied with an incomplete business training is to establish one or two-year courses for them, with graduation at the end of such courses. The surest way to insure that such boys and girls will reap only disappointment for their effort to get business training is to offer in such a short course bookkeeping and shorthand as vocational training."[1]

A further examination of the courses shows two distinct methods of organization. About 90 percent of the courses are organized upon an academic basis and offer 70 percent or more of general academic work. On the other hand, such cities as Boston, Chicago, Los Angeles and others have certain courses that are distinctly vocational — The "modified general" studies are effectively related to the technical work offered.

The range of subjects included in the courses of study

[1] The Federal Board for Vocational Education, 1919, Bulletin No. 34, Page 15.

of 72 cities, the number of times they appear, and their relative frequency are shown in Table XII.

TABLE XII

THE RELATIVE FREQUENCY OF SUBJECTS OF THE COMMERCIAL PROGRAMS OF STUDY. (102 courses)

Subject	Number of times studies appear	Relative importance between subjects offered	Percentage of total number of courses studied
Advertising	9	.6	8.8
Banking	10	.6	9.8
Bookkeeping, Elementary	97	6.0	95.1
Bookkeeping, Advanced	91	5.6	89.2
Commercial Arithmetic	92	5.6	90.2
Commercial Art	12	.7	11.7
Commercial Geography	80	4.9	78.4
Commercial History	49	3.0	48.0
Commercial Law	68	4.2	66.6
Economics	40	2.4	38.2
English, Business	76	4.6	74.4
English, Oral	14	.9	13.7
Foreign Trade	3	.2	3.0
History and Civics	95	5.8	93.1
Household Arts	12	.7	11.7
Mathematics	87	5.3	85.3
Mechanical Drawing	11	.7	10.8
Modern Languages	82	5.	80.4
Music	58	3.6	56.8
Occupations	4	.2	3.9
Office Practice and Business Organization	59	3.6	57.8
Penmanship	84	5.1	82.3
Physical Education	91	5.6	89.2
Salesmanship	48	2.9	47.0
Science	79	4.9	77.4
Spelling	62	3.7	60.8
Shorthand	99	6.1	97.0
Stenotypy	4	.2	3.9
Transportation	8	.5	7.8
Typewriting	96	6.0	94.1
Window Display	2	.1	1.1
Work-shop	12	.7	11.7

The above table shows that in more than fifty percent of the courses, shorthand, bookkeeping, typewriting, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, commercial law, business English, penmanship, spelling, are the only technical and "modified general" subjects offered. Salesmanship is given in forty-seven percent of the courses studied. Banking, advertising, foreign trade, transportation, and window display are offered in from one percent to ten percent. Eighty-nine percent of the courses offer some form of physical training and hygiene, about ninety-three percent offer history and civics. Four courses only offer work in occupations. Some form of science is offered in about seventy-seven percent and mathematics in about eighty-five percent of the courses. Modern languages could be differentiated in eight instances as being modified for commercial work. Perhaps more than this number of cases included in the eighty percent offered may be more or less distinctly vocational but in most instances the commercial pupils receive their foreign language instruction in the general classes. Music is included in fifty-six percent of the courses, and usually appears as choral practice.

A study of these data shows that a large majority of secondary school curricula are attempting little more than limited clerical training. There are no definite principles established upon which a study is included or excluded from the course — chance, opinion, and custom govern. Hence the subjects are seldom effectively related to accomplish definite vocational aims.

An analysis of the courses of study to show the years in which the technical vocational subjects and the modified general subjects appear gives the following table:

TABLE XIII

YEARS IN WHICH COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS APPEAR
(102 courses considered)

Subjects	Total No. Canvassed	Number of Schools Reporting the Commercial Subjects in Various High School Years							Other Combinations
		1st Yr.	2nd Yr.	1st and 2nd Yr.	3rd Yr.	2nd and 3rd Yr.	4th Yr.	3rd and 4th Yr.	
Advertising	9	..	..	..	2	..	7	..	..
Banking	10	..	..	..	2	..	8	..	..
Bookkeeping, Elementary	97	18	35	24	2	18	..	..	..
Bookkeeping, Advanced	91	..	10	..	12	5	17	46	1
Commercial Arithmetic	92	59	24	6	..	1	..	2	..
Commercial Art	12	..	1	..	4	..	3	4	..
Commercial Geography	80	17	35	..	14	2	10	2	..
Commercial History	49	3	20	3	14	8	1	..	..
Commercial Law	68	..	7	..	24	..	30	6	1
English, Business	76	16	19	11	16	..	9	5	..
Foreign Trade	3	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	..
Occupations	4	..	2	..	2	..	..	..	..
Office Practice	59	24	10	..	2	8	15	..	..
Penmanship	84	47	1	20	3	1	..	3	9
Salesmanship	48	1	7	..	11	..	26	2	1
Spelling	62	28	2	20	..	..	1	1	10
Shorthand	99	2	13	9	11	4	9	40	11
Stenotypy	4	..	..	..	..	4	..	..	..
Transportation	8	..	..	..	..	..	8	..	..
Typewriting	96	4	7	12	9	6	3	43	12
Window Display	2	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..

Where two years are listed in the same column it may mean that (1) the subject is given in both years, or (2) that the subject is elective in either of the years. Elementary bookkeeping, advanced bookkeeping, commercial arithmetic, penmanship, and commercial geography fall in the first class [1] and commercial law, stenography, typewriting, commercial history, and salesmanship usually follow the latter practice.

The current practice shows that commercial arithmetic, elementary bookkeeping, commercial geography, occupations, penmanship, and spelling are usually offered in the beginning years of the course, and that the more technical studies, advertising, commercial art, banking, advanced bookkeeping, commercial law, foreign trade, office practice, salesmanship, stenography, stenotypy, transportation, typewriting, and window display are given in the advanced years of the high school course. Commercial history is usually offered in the second or third years. There is no marked tendency in the current practice in reference to business English. This is due to the inclusion of the general English courses in the commercial program. It would be difficult, without the gathering and verification of certain data, to state why the several subjects are so allocated. It is probable that either custom or the particular experience of some educator has decided their place in the course. However, the experience of those schools offering the best commercial training shows that the arrangement in reference to the years in which the subjects appear seems best to meet the needs of the pupils.

[1] This statement is further substantiated by the study of Leonard V. Koos in "The Administration of Secondary School Units," p. 143.

The time allotted to the several commercial subjects is shown by Table XIV.

TABLE XIV

LENGTH OF TIME (IN YEARS) ALLOTTED TO THE SEVERAL COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS

Subjects	Time Allotments for Various Subjects Offered							
	Total	Less than ½ Yr.	½ Yr.	1 Yr.	1½ Yrs.	2 Yrs.	3 Yrs.	4 Yrs.
Advertising	9	..	7	2	..	..	..	..
Banking	10	..	6	4	..	..	..	..
Bookkeeping, Elementary	97	2	4	36	12	42	1	..
Bookkeeping, Advanced	91	..	8	57	3	23	..	..
Commercial Arithmetic	92	2	38	46	..	6	..	..
Commercial Art	12	..	2	6	..	4	..	..
Commercial Geography	80	3	69	8	..	..	..	..
Commercial History	49	..	32	14	3	..	..	..
Commercial Law	68	2	54	12	..	..	..	..
English, Business	76	..	29	20	3	11	8	5
Foreign Trade	3	..	..	3	..	..	..	..
Occupations	4	..	..	4	..	..	..	..
Office Practice	59	3	30	26	..	..	..	..
Penmanship	84	7	32	29	..	16	..	..
Salesmanship	48	..	35	11	..	2	..	..
Spelling	62	5	11	28	..	18	..	..
Shorthand	99	1	1	25	11	52	8	1
Stenotypy	4	..	..	4	..	..	..	..
Transportation	8	..	7	1	..	..	..	..
Typewriting	96	1	..	26	8	55	4	2
Window Display	2	..	..	2	..	..	..	..

Bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting are usually considered as two-year courses. The advanced bookkeeping is usually a one-year course, being preceded by sometimes one year and sometimes two years of elementary work. In a few instances advanced bookkeeping is termed " accounting " by high school authorities; where it is so designated it is included under advanced bookkeeping. Commercial arithmetic and penmanship are offered as one-half-year subjects about as many times as they are offered as one-year subjects. As reported, business English is most often a half-year course, though in ten cases it is allotted one year and in from five to eleven instances is given from two to four years. Commercial geography, commercial history, commercial law, and office practice (sometimes designated as office organization) are predominately one-half-year subjects. When offered, salesmanship and advertising are generally given one-half year, foreign trade and occupations one year. The courses in advertising, banking, foreign trade, occupations and salesmanship (retail selling) are looked upon frankly as experimental studies and are given a minimum of time in the curricula.

The time in length of years is only one phase of the time element to be considered. The second phase is the actual class time devoted to the several subjects. This is shown in the following Table (Table No. XV):

The majority of courses studied are organized upon a basis of 45–50 minute periods, the next largest number from 50–55 minutes, and a very small minority follow other practices. For convenience in this study all of these groups are considered under the heading " 50 minutes per week." Where the class is held for two periods a week it is listed under " 100 minutes per week, "

TABLE XV

PERCENTAGE OF COURSES OF STUDY FOLLOWING VARIOUS PRACTICES IN TIME ALLOTMENTS PER WEEK IN COMMERCIAL STUDIES
(102 courses of study)

Subjects	Number of Instances	50 min. per. wk.	100 min. per. wk.	150 min. per. wk.	200 min. per wk.	250 min. per wk.	300 min. per wk.	350 min. per. wk.	400 min. per. wk.	450 min. per. wk.	500 min. per. wk.
Advertising	9	....	....	....	....	66.6	...	....	....	....	33.3
Banking	10	....	....	....	100	....	...	....	....	....	....
Bookkeeping, Elementary	97	....	....	....	20.6	70.1	...	....	....	....	9.3
Bookkeeping, Advanced	91	....	....	....	....	52.8	...	....	7.7	....	39.5
Commercial Arithmetic	92	....	....	....	32.6	67.4	...	....	....	....	....
Commercial Art	12	33.3	....	50	....	....	...	....	16.7	....	....
Commercial Geography	80	....	....	....	63.7	36.3	...	....	....	....	....
Commercial History	49	....	....	....	12.3	97.7	...	....	....	....	....
Commercial Law	68	....	50	13.2	....	36.8	...	....	....	...	....
English, Business	76	....	....	....	32.9	67.1	...	....	....	...	....
Foreign Trade	3	....	100	....	....	....	...	....	....	...	....
Occupations	4	....	....	....	50	50	...	....	....	...	....
Office Practice	59	10.2	11.9	....	11.9	66	...	....	....	...	....
Penmanship	84	....	22.6	10.7	....	66.6	...	....	....	...	
Salesmanship	48	....	....	....	16.6	77.1	...	....	....	...	6.3
Spelling [1]	62	....	....	....	....	....	...	....	....	...	....
Shorthand	99	....	....	....	31.3	31.3	7.1	7.1	...	...	23.2
Stenotypy	4	....	....	....	....	....	...	75	....	...	25
Transportation	8	....	....	50	....	50	...	....	....	...	....
Typewriting	96	12.5	....	8.3	....	22.9	8.3	....	....	16.6	27.2

[1] Spelling usually included with English, Penmanship, Office Practice, or Bookkeeping. Time allotted usually from 10 to 20 minutes daily.

and where the class occupies two periods a day for five days it is listed under "500 minutes per week." Accounting and advanced bookkeeping should be considered together, for in most instances the "accounting," as

offered, covers only certain steps in specialized bookkeeping. Fifty-three percent of the advanced bookkeeping is offered 250 minutes each week and thirty-nine percent is given just double that amount of time. The advanced work in bookkeeping, then, has the distribution of time made according to two distinct practices, one period five times each week and two periods for the same number of times. Seventy percent of the courses allot 250 minutes each week for elementary bookkeeping, and twenty-one percent 200 minutes each week. Thus the weekly time allotment for elementary bookkeeping is fairly well standardized. The courses in office practice (and organization) usually are allowed 250 minutes each week for one-half year. The allotment for penmanship follows two practices, 100 minutes each week for a year's time and 250 minutes a week over a semester's time. So far salesmanship is usually given five periods a week or 250 minutes. The current practices of time allotment for shorthand and for typewriting vary. The attempt is made to give as much time as possible for practice, which, as the Head of the Clerical Department of the Boys' High School of Commerce of Boston tersely states, " is little enough." Commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, commercial history, and foreign languages are usually alloted 200 or 250 minutes each week. Commercial law in half the cases is taught only 100 minutes each week and 37 percent of the cases 250 minutes each week. It can be said that the classes in commercial subjects are usually given the 250 minutes each week.

How the several subjects are organized to make the commercial courses flexible and thus provide for individual differences is shown in Table XVI.

TABLE XVI

THE RELATIONSHIP OF REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE STUDIES IN THE COMMERCIAL COURSES OF STUDY AS SHOWN BY REPRESENTATIVE COURSES OF FIFTY-TWO CITIES AND TOWNS[1]

Subject	Required				Elective			
	1st Yr.	2nd Yr.	3rd Yr.	4th Yr.	1st Yr.	2nd Yr.	3rd Yr.	4th Yr.
Advertising	.	..	1	..	..	..	1	3
Banking	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	4
Bookkeeping (Elementary)	22	40	4	..	..	6	2	..
Bookkeeping (Advanced)	..	..	14	12	..	..	6	22
Commercial Arithmetic	34	6	..	..	..	2	2	..
Commercial Art	..	1	..	..	..	..	6	3
Commercial Geography	10	21	6	4	1	2	3	..
Commercial History	2	4	13	1	..	4	..	..
Commercial Law	..	1	16	19	..	..	2	5
Economics	..	..	..	20	..	4	..	4
English	52	50	40	25	..	..	..	3
English, Oral	2	2	1	1	1	..	1	2
Foreign Trade	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
History and Civics	10	14	30	26	6	8	7	4
Household Arts	..	..	..	..	5	4	5	3
Mathematics	16	20	3	..	4	10	11	14
Mechanical Drawing	..	..	2	..	1	1	4	2
Modern Languages	21	20	17	8	16	18	18	26
Music	24	17	11	8	2	..	10	10
Occupations	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..
Office Practice and Organization	14	..	2	11	..	11	..	2
Penmanship	40	8	2	..	..	..	2	1
Physical Education	18	21	14	12	..	..	2	2
Salesmanship	..	2	4	10	2	2	4	6
Science	24	9	12	4	6	14	17	21
Spelling	25	9	1	1	..	..	..	..
Shorthand	8	20	25	11	2	7	14	12
Stenotypy	..	..	..	..	..	2	1	..
Transportation	..	..	..	5	..	..	..	..
Typewriting	5	18	31	20	.	3	10	13
Window Display	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	1
Work Shop	.	..	..	..	4	4	2	2

[1] Only the above number of the printed courses of study to which reference is made differentiated between required and elective work.

Elementary bookkeeping is usually included in the first and second years of the commercial course as a required subject, while advanced bookkeeping is usually included as an elective one in the last two years. Commercial arithmetic, commercial history, commercial geography, commercial law are usually required. Some form of English is required throughout the first three years and in about 50 percent of the courses in the fourth year also. Oral English is required in only six instances. Modern languages are included as electives as often as they are as required subjects. Foreign trade is always an elective. Economics is " required " in twenty courses, always in the fourth year of the course. Other than commercial arithmetic, mathematics is required in about 40 percent of the courses, and is an elective. Physical education is generally required in the first year, and in some cases throughout the four years. Penmanship is usually required in the first or second years of the commercial course. Science is included in the course as an elective as often as it is as a required subject. Shorthand is usually required in the second and third years, and is elective (26 times) in the third and fourth years. Salesmanship when required is usually put in the fourth year. It is an elective subject in two instances in the first year, in two instances in the second year, in four instances in the third year, and in six instances in the fourth year. From this study it seems that no definite principle has been established in reference to the place of salesmanship in the curriculum. In every instance stenotypy is offered as an elective primarily because of the limited demand and the expense of the equipment. Typewriting is usually required.

To summarize current practice, as shown by the above study in curriculum content and organization, it should be said that,

1. Over one-half of the commercial courses studied are organized upon a four-year plan and about one-quarter are organized upon the two-year plan. The two-year courses in an attempt to hold pupils in high schools, are allotting an excessive proportion of time to technical studies.

2. There are two distinct methods of organizing the commercial course. About 90 percent of the courses are organized upon an academic basis. The subjects included in the curricula are largely general academic studies and the commercial subjects are grouped as electives along with the academic electives. The second plan of organization arranges the subjects into three groups of studies, "technical studies," "modified general studies," and "general studies." Around the core of technical studies the related and general studies are organized so as to contribute to the vocational purpose of the course. No distinct principles based upon the needs of commercial education dominate the organization of the great majority of the courses.

3. Those subjects included in over one-half of the commercial programs are shorthand, bookkeeping, typewriting, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, commercial law, business English, penmanship, and spelling. Little or no provision is made for the merchandising lines, advertising, banking, foreign trade, retail salesmanship, wholesaling, when about 85 percent of those persons engaged in commercial occupations are employed in the active pursuits of business.

4. Commercial arithmetic, elementary bookkeeping, commercial geography, occupations, penmanship, and spelling are usually included in the first two years of the commercial curriculum, and advertising, commercial art, banking, advanced bookkeeping (including accounting), commercial law, foreign trade, office

transportation when offered are usually included in the advanced years. No definite practice is established in reference to the inclusion of business English.

5. The subjects which are usually allotted one year in the commercial curricula are commercial arithmetic, elementary bookkeeping, advanced bookkeeping, foreign trade, and occupations. In certain cases bookkeeping is considered as a two-year course. Typewriting and shorthand are usually considered as two-year courses. Custom has established no definite allotment in the cases of penmanship, business English, and commercial arithmetic. They appear as half-year courses as often as they appear as year courses. The rest of the subjects offered are usually one-half year courses. Such courses as salesmanship, transportation, advertising, and similar courses recently undertaken are looked upon as experiments and current practice can contribute little of value concerning the length of time that should be given them. The entire study of the time allotments suggests the necessity of a close study of the several subjects in order to determine how effectively they are being taught, and whether they are contributing essential values to the commercial curricula.

6. The class periods are in the large majority of the cases 45 to 55 minutes in length. The exceptions to this rule are the double periods allotted to stenography, typewriting, and bookkeeping. The classes are usually held five times each week except where the work, as in commercial arithmetic, commercial history, or commercial law is given only four periods in order to make room for some other subjects such as spelling or penmanship. The present arrangement of class periods makes no provision for specialized work.

CHAPTER VII

PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION

An interpretation of the data in the sixth chapter shows that current public commercial education is dominated by two contrasting theories of education — by the ideals of general education and by the principles of specific technical training; by what is termed broad, liberal culture on the one hand, and by specialized vocational training on the other.

This condition causes a lack of fundamental unity in current commercial curricula. Where they are organized upon an academic basis, with the substitution of commercial subjects for certain of the general academic subjects, they fail in a large measure of accomplishing either the disciplinary, cultural, or vocational objectives. They attempt to unite a group of subjects which are dominated by disparate aims. The general subjects, such as mathematics, geography, history, and literature, are introduced for their cultural and disciplinary values, the technical subjects, such as bookkeeping, typewriting, shorthand, and office practice for their narrow utilitarian values. The compromise resulting from the attempt to correlate the two contending groups usually results in an ineffective curriculum organization.[1]

[1] In addition to the data included in the first pages of this chapter, attention is called to the Report of the Committee of Nine of the Department of Business Education of the National

Where the organization of commercial curricula is influenced by the practice of industrial vocational education; i.e. of organizing " related " and " general " subjects about a core of " technical " studies, it has overcome the weaknesses of the " academic organization. " It does not allow the technical work to be hampered. Each study and influence supports a central group of technical studies so that the vocational objectives will not be weakened. But this arranging of the several studies so that they contribute to the " core of technical studies " tends toward too narrow a limitation to technical training for occupational specialization. Although such specialization is not to be minimized, it must not be conceived of as commercial education.

Reviewing the ideals of commercial education as established in the first chapter, it is apparent that commercial courses of study can be best developed on a functionalized plan following the several divisions of commercial activity. This functional division at once gives vertical differentiations for training and makes less difficult the ordering of horizontal differentiations which show how to establish the successive steps through operative routine to the determining of operating policies and plans — the work of management. The basis of the commercial curriculum is to be found not in the academic

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Educational Association, 1903, Boston. (See page 57.) The curriculum drawn up by this committee has served as a model for public secondary commercial curricula. It is criticized in the following manner: " Another point which calls for commendation is the inclusion in the program of practically all the standard secondary subjects, with the exception of Latin and Greek, which even in the ordinary high schools have none too secure a position in these days." *Report of the Committee of Nine,* National Education Association Proceedings, 1904, p. 721.

organization with its group of cultural and disciplinary subjects, nor in the core of technical studies, as advocated by those who would make commercial education a strict vocational training, but in the group of social studies which give the economic, ethical, and social meanings of the commercial vocation in which the pupil elects to engage. To this group of social studies are related the fundamental studies on the one hand and the technical studies on the other.

The fundamental studies fall into two classes,—those subjects that make possible a proper physical foundation, and those that deal with "fundamental processes." A good physical basis and proper habits of hygiene are essential in the life of any person if he is to be an efficient member of a community. Every provision must be made to aid the physical development of the pupil who enters upon the course at the adolescent age. "The secondary school should provide health instruction, inculcate health habits, organize an effective program of physical activities, regard health needs in planning work and play, and coöperate with home and community in safeguarding and promoting health interests."[1]

The study of the several commercial curricula (Table XII) shows that not enough is being done in physical training. There should be more time given to the work and it should be so arranged and taught that it is considered an essential "tool" contributing to and necessary for a commercial career.

In the teaching of the fundamental studies are seen two tendencies, especially significant to commercial education. The field of instruction is being limited more

[1] "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education." Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35. Page 11.

closely to materials used in the common practices of life, and a greater degree of proficiency is being required in the narrowing field. Perhaps it is not too much to say that commercial education has been criticised more because its pupils do not have a grasp of arithmetic and English than for any other reason. This criticism ultimately reverts to the lack of thoroughness of elementary education. A report of the New York Chamber of Commerce concisely epitomizes such criticism. "Your committee's inquiry both among the teachers of the commercial schools and among those employers who desire to employ their product, disclosed a wide-spread opinion that the charge of general inefficiency among the graduates is not without foundation; that a large proportion of them are deficient in practical working knowledge of the fundamental subjects such as reading, writing, spelling, and grammatical construction of the English language, and arithmetic . . . "[1]

The courses of study make little attempt to articulate the arithmetic of the grades with the commercial arithmetic of the high school classes, nor to bring the standards of the English branches in the grades to a place where they will form adequate bases for the English work of the commercial courses. Thus the commercial course must recognize the need and provide time for such further training in the fundamental processes as may be necessary for those pupils who have not attained to the essential standards in the lower grades. Chicago recognizes the maladjustment between the grammar school and high school commercial work in arithmetic, and allots about one-third of the time in the ninth year to a review

[1] Report of New York Chamber of Commerce, June 27, 1917. Page 16.

in the fundamentals of arithmetic, "that the pupils may be thorough and attain speed."

As shown in the organization of the current curricula, these fundamental studies have been so arranged that they are considered as ends in themselves, as having separate objectives. This is illustrated by the introduction of grammar as a disciplinary subject and phases of arithmetic for mental training. Such an arrangement disperses the objectives of the entire course. The fundamental processes should always be so organized that they can never be thought of in any other way than as "tool" subjects motivated in the several specific instances by projected vocational and social needs.

The technical subjects, those subjects that "train for, or give a basis of a technical commercial occupation," must have the definite aim of specific vocational education. The necessary technical training must in no case be minimized, hence the objectives of the subjects must not be confused. Bookkeeping in particular so long erroneously considered the "backbone of the commercial course," has suffered for lack of correct aims. A recent volume on commercial education sums up the aims of bookkeeping as follows. "We want the course in bookkeeping to be treated in such a manner as to realize in full measure all its pedagogic possibilities for the student."[1]

Another writer in this field points out that the aim of bookkeeping is "to afford practice in handling the routine of business transactions in accordance with correct principles and proper technique."[2]

[1] Kahn and Klein. "Principles and Methods in Commercial Education." Page 155.

[2] University of the State of New York. Syllabus for Secondary Schools (1919): "Commercial Subjects." Page 4.

But the objectives of bookkeeping are not "mental discipline" nor the teaching of "business principles and technique," but the training of the pupil for mastery of "the three principles of bookkeeping — the nature of debit and credit, the distinction between real and nominal accounts, and the use of the special column," and the application of "these principles in their numerous ramifications."[1]

And just as bookkeeping has these specific objectives, so such subjects as "salesmanship," "business organization," or "advertising," when included in the curriculum should be so clearly and purposefully organized that there can be no doubt as to how they should be taught and as to what their relationships to the rest of the subjects should be.

The social studies, literature, geography, history, civics, economics and sociology, should be so ordered that they will interpret for the pupil technical training as a means of service to society; that they will enable him to conceive of and maintain an equitable relation to other members of the chosen specific vocation and a rational and coöperative attitude toward other lines of occupations, and also help to develop in him those ethical traits of morality, justice, and loyalty, so necessary to the life of the individual, essential to commercial activities, and imperative for the existence of the state.

The analysis of the courses of study shows that most of the social studies are included in the curricula in such a way as to preclude the above given objectives. Nine-tenths of the literature in the commercial courses is organized to meet the academic requirement and in the

[1] Cole, W. M. "Accounts, their Construction and Interpretation." Page 5.

few instances where attempts are made to make it a "related subject," the work is too narrowly limited. United States history and civics, as well as economics, are usually introduced in the fourth year without a proper basis and without being properly related to the entire course of instruction. Moreover, because many pupils leave school in the early high school years, only a minor part of the secondary school pupils ever have an opportunity of availing themselves of the meagre training these studies offer. The social studies should be organized to form a group extending throughout the entire commercial course and should be ordered to meet the gradually developing needs of the pupils in the light of the economic, civic, and social aims, for their purpose is to enable the pupil to interpret his chosen vocation as a part of social service and his own life as a part of the life of the community he is to serve.

The discussion, then, of the fundamental, technical, and social subjects, points out the necessity of considering and ordering these groups of studies as parts of one indispensable whole of preparation.

There must also be considered in the organization of the curriculum the question of the individual differences due to sex and to the nature of the development of the pupil. The New York City Survey [1] and the study of the Cleveland Schools [2] place particular emphasis upon sex differences and favor sex segregation. The recommendations of the New York City Survey are as follows: "This department should reproduce as nearly as possible

[1] Thompson, F. V. "Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools."

[2] Stevens, B. M. "Boys and Girls in Commercial Work." Volume in the Cleveland Survey.

the separate commercial schools, and the sexes should be separated for efficiency and for vocational reasons. The boys should pursue a course as nearly as possible like that of the best commercial schools for boys, and the girls should be given a course founded upon the best models for girls. . . . There is no more reason for the same courses for boys and girls in commerce than there is for the same courses for boys and girls in industry." [1]

The Cleveland Survey has developed this principle to its extreme. "Training for boys and girls should be different in content and emphasis . . ." "The usual course of study in commercial schools is suitable for girls and unsuitable for boys . . . A girl needs, chiefly, specific training in some one line of work. She has a choice among stenography, bookkeeping, and machine operating . . . A boy needs, chiefly, general education, putting emphasis on writing, figuring, and spelling, general information, and the development of certain qualities and standards." [2]

The arguments of these surveys favoring sex segregation may be classified, (1) according to physical differences, (2) according to mental differences, and (3) according to commercial demands based on custom. These bases must be analysed in order to avoid fundamental fallacies. In considering segregation because of physical differences it must be determined how far the estimate is based upon actual physical traits and how far it is based upon social demands. During the recent war emergency, women entered into many commercial and

[1] Thompson, F. V. "Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools." Page 143.

[2] Stevens, B. M. "Boys and Girls in Commercial Work." Page 179.

industrial occupations formerly closed to them because of their supposed physical inferiority.

The differences in mental traits have been the source of much comment. Professor Inglis states that "differences in mental abilities between boys and girls in the secondary school are probably quite negligible. Differences in interests and attitudes are great and important." [1]

How this will affect class-room work has been commented upon by Professor Thorndike as follow: "By way of preface to an account of sex differences, it is well to note that their existence does not necessarily imply in any case the advisability of differences in school and home training, and that on the other hand, even if the mental traits of the sexes were identical it might still be wisest to educate them differently. It is true that a difference of two groups in a mental trait will theoretically involve differences in treatment, but practical considerations apart from that of developing the highest efficiency in that trait may outweigh the advantage of different treatment." [2]

Thus while there are differences to be recognized, how dominating they are, or what methods of dealing with them are to be used are in no wise fixed. Perhaps the problems so far presented will best be summed up by saying "that up to the present time experimental psychology has disclosed no sex differences in mental traits which would imply a division of labor on psychological grounds. The social gain would be very great if the

[1] Inglis, Alexander. "Principles of Secondary Education." Page 114.

[2] Thorndike, E. L. "Educational Psychology." Volume III, Page 169.

public could be brought to recognize intelligently that to many of the questions regarding the vocational aptitudes of women no definite answers can at present be given, because the necessary data for the formulation of answers have not been collected. So far as is at present known, women are as competent intellectually as men are, to undertake any and all human vocations." [1]

This lack of data from which to estimate satisfactorily these two phases of the question, only emphasizes the difficulty of establishing any principles regarding the social demands based upon custom. It has been the custom to employ men in certain positions and women in others. The Cleveland Survey points out that only certain lines are open to women, "stenography, bookkeeping, and machine operating," and that men do not enter these lines; hence, there is an immediate recommendation made for the segregation of the sexes. Tendencies in commercial employment have not been considered. The trend in business today is to divide the clerical work so that only the cheapest grade of labor need be employed. And with the increasing wage scale for all classes of labor, business is using more and more mechanical devices to supplant clerical help. The next decade will see a great diminution in the relative numbers of those employed in the clerical as compared with those employed in the merchandising lines of business.

Again women are rapidly filling places as minor executives, as buyers, as directors of employment, and sales managers in stores. This change in the social attitude must be considered. In order to obtain data concerning this tendency a study was made of twenty-eight

[1] Hollingsworth, H. L. and L. S. "Vocational Psychology." Page 244.

representative commercial houses, banks, stores, real estate offices, and offices of manufacturers, in Greater Boston. These were questioned as to how they considered the employment of women, and for what positions they would employ female help. Certain dangers had to be guarded against at the start of this study, (1) that politic answers were not given, (2) that the answers given were based upon the established policy of the firm, (3) that the answers given did not have their bases solely in economic conditions, (lower wage schedule). In order to obtain correct answers, questions concerning the policy of the firm were asked of some member of the firm, while the actual procedure concerning the hiring of employees was obtained from the employment manager or the superintendent who did the hiring. The following generalizations may be made from the answers obtained:

1. That during the war emergency the demand for labor caused firms in Boston to employ women to fill positions which had always been filled by men.
2. That in many instances the business houses thought they would continue the women in the positions thus filled, even though men were available. (How far the economic factor enters into this decision cannot be judged; hence the measure of efficiency can only be partially assumed.)
3. That women, 14 cases and 6 exceptions, were found as dependable and as efficient as the men had been in the minor executive positions they filled.
4. That in bookkeeping and accounting (41 positions) the women were able to take the place of men. One office reported that women, 9 employees, at the end of three months were as efficient as men who "had been on the books for two and three years."
5. That women were as able to manage the departments of stores, 8 instances, and better able to handle the saleswomen of stores, 12 instances, than men.

6. That women were employed and would be continued in employment as tellers, and as special clerks in banks, 9 instances, in the place of men.

While these generalizations are based upon too limited a number of cases to be of very great value, they are indicative of the change in regard to the employment of women about Boston and its vicinity, a change which perhaps is very general throughout the nation.

Thus certain tendencies in the hiring of commercial employees must be recognized in considering the problem. Even though custom does in a large measure demand that women shall be employed in certain commercial occupations and men in others, the recognition of the above mentioned expansion of the field of employment for women in commercial lines, and the narrowing field of clerkships and machine operating indicates that, rather than having complete segregation of the sexes with a limited field for each sex, there should be a curriculum offering diversified courses in which either of the sexes could get the training needed to meet current demands.

A curriculum so organized with a comprehensive system of vocational guidance, would accomplish the desired results without entailing the disadvantages of the inflexible method of segregation.

The developing needs of the pupils are another consideration that must be taken into account in organizing curricula. In most instances current curricula (Table XIII, Page 125) are not arranged to care for these needs in the best way. Abrupt changes occur in the transition between the elementary grades and the first years of the high school commercial course through the rapid introduction of new studies which do not have a proper foundation established for them. Again in some courses there

is too great a change even between the first two and the last two high school years. The model course of study for secondary commercial education, drawn up by the Committee of Nine, attempts to overcome the marked changes, but it still shows the influence of the saltatory theory of pupil development. The varying capacities and aptitudes of the pupils will be more effectively met by a gradually developing course of study, which is not only carefully coördinated with their needs but which is so arranged that it will fit for those vocations that are open to the boys and girls of different ages. This ordering will bring about a rational consideration of the length of time to be spent in preparation. The training for some operations will demand no longer time than a period of a few weeks, while others will require years of preparation. As our curricula are organized at this time, each of the several courses is made of a standard length by means of the inclusion of miscellaneous subjects. The variation in such organization is in the intensity of the work required. Rather than making this intensity in work the variable, it seems better to increase or decrease the length of time in proportion to the amount of materials to be covered in the field of study and to the ability of the student to master the necessary work involved.

Again the present system in our secondary schools does not make provision for those who must drop out from time to time or who leave before the completion of the secondary course. These pupils find themselves confronted with the problems arising from the lack of a definite preparation, because too much time has been spent in disciplinary work. The fact that it is necessary for students to drop out and that the conditions causing

" school leaving " cannot be changed, makes it incumbent upon those who organize education for the several fields of business to so order the curricula that the interests of both those students who are forced to leave and those who can complete the work are cared for. The Federal Board for Vocational Education recently made a survey of junior commercial occupations that clearly establishes the necessity of so ordering the curricula for training in the several functions of business that the preparation they afford will conform with the demands of the positions in which the students leaving the different grades usually find employment, and of so organizing the work that each period of training not only forms a distinct unit of work in itself but serves as the basis of more advanced units of work. This articulation of work would permit the student to undertake such studies as would carry him through the successive steps in operating routine and methods of work that would prepare him to lay out plans and determine operating policies, the work of the executive. The whole developing curricula would be tied together not only through the sequence of the technical units but by the core of social studies that forms the basis of each of the divisions of the curricula. Upon the successful completion of each unit by the student, he would receive a certificate showing the exact work covered by the course undertaken, the standard of accomplishment, and the specific fields which he is qualified to enter because of his training.

Thus such organization makes definite arrangement for pupils who can spend only one or two years in secondary education, without establishing a short course to attract those who might be able to complete the entire course of instruction. It does not offer an obstacle to be

overcome by those pupils who, having elected a short course, find themselves able to complete more work. In other words, there is not a distinctly differentiated course to appeal to numbers of pupils because it is a quick way through school.

In ordering the curricula according to the functions of commerce, i.e. accounting, supervising, assembling, financing, selling, etc., and arranging the several steps within each of the functions so that each unit in a given field is a more or less complete training for some particular field in commerce, and at the same time a basis for more advanced work in the field, the 6-3-3 plan of organization with its junior and senior high school units seems to be the most efficient. This need not necessarily be true, for the 8-4 plan can be as effective if properly organized, but the chances for proper organization seem to point to the Junior-Senior High School type of organization. The close articulation of the work of the units makes each of them more effective as it permits of a greater amount of specialization in the more advanced years of the work. The time possible for such specialization is the result of the doing away of a great deal of inflation and formalism of the subject matter taught. By allowing for the inclusion of a greater variety of fields in which to work or of greater intensification of the subject matter, the plan gives opportunity for pupils to come in touch with a greater range of subjects, and with the various activities within a given selected field, and thus enables them to wisely determine their own interests, needs and capacities.

Current educational and social tendencies substantiate the theory that work through the ninth grade should be made compulsory and that the emphasis throughout

the so-called Junior High School period should be upon the social-civic studies, not only as a basis for standing in the community, but as a basis for interpretation for specific vocational pursuits. Beginning with the ninth grade the curricula should be so ordered that the technical units undertaken, supported by the related social studies, will have specific civic and vocational aims. The materials included in the technical training of this year of the course, and of those years following, should be so analyzed that their value can be seen immediately and related to the specific vocational objective. This will motivate the work of the pupil in such a way that he will be able to get the greatest possible return from each of the units of work undertaken.

One of the immediate results of such an ordering would be the grouping of different technical training courses, even though ordered under the different curricula, according to the difficulty they presented to the pupils undertaking them. In this manner would be provided a more satisfactory vocational education test than is now available. Certain cities have added special courses in occupations that are supposed, through the introduction of occupational information, to help the pupils decide concerning their special inclinations and abilities. In addition to these, other cities have added short unit try-out courses as another way of providing a knowledge of the different commercial activities. However, the above mentioned rough classifications or successive groupings of studies will tend to test the ability of the pupil under conditions more nearly approximating actual situations in commerce, and within a comparatively short time will determine intelligence levels for each group. Provision will be made for the pupil (in

part with the advice of the staff) to determine what work he should undertake and know with a reasonable degree of certainty he could succeed in. It must be constantly recognized, however, that such selection can never be final, for if the environment changes or the intensity of the stimuli in the identical environment varies, there will be a corresponding change in the reactions of the pupil; hence, what he might successfully undertake at one time, he would fail in at another time, or, conversely, he might succeed where he had failed. The function of the course from this standpoint then would be to help the pupil to determine his abilities for himself, so that he would always have a method of ascertaining his capacities and aptitudes under given conditions.

Such vocational direction is hampered by the organization of specialized high schools, which make it impossible for the pupil to be shifted easily from one department to another. Where there is a diversified program in a single institution, the change is more readily made. It is true that commercial education is dealing with pupils who are supposed to have already chosen their careers, yet many pupils in commercial schools have not made a definite choice, but have entered such courses for a variety of other reasons. Even if a choice has been made it should not be irrevocable. For most pupils the transfer from one school to another is more difficult than the changing from one curriculum to another in the same school.

In many instances part of the pupil's time should be spent in actual commercial occupations in some form of part-time work, for in this way the class-room work can be very advantageously amplified by giving him an opportunity to see the application of the principles as

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL UNITS

(Suggested Schedule)

Seventh Year

SUBJECTS	HRS.
Required	
English	5
Arithmetic	4
Geography	5
Physical Training	4
Physiology and Hygiene	1
History, U. S.	5
Business Writing (20 minutes daily)	
Music Appreciation	2
Occupations (Commercial Emphasis)	3
Elective	
Manual Training	4
Household Arts	4

Eighth Year

SUBJECTS	HRS.
Required	
English	3
*English, Oral	1
*English (Simple Business English-Letter Forms)	1
*Business Arithmetic (20 minutes daily)	
*Business Writing (20 minutes daily)	
Geography (Commercial and Social Applications	5
History, U. S., and Citizenship	5
Physical Training	4
Sanitation	4
Music	2
Short Unit Try-Out Courses (Commercial in Character)	3
Elective	
Typewriting (Unprepared)	5
Manual Training	4
Household Arts	4

Ninth Year

SUBJECTS	HRS.
Required	
English	3
English, Oral	1
English (Business Forms)	1
Commercial Arithmetic	5
Physical Training	5
General Science	5
Problems in Citizenship	2
Occupations of the Community	2
Personal Appearance and Responsibility	2
Elective	
Elements of Business Practice (Unprepared)	3
Typewriting (Unprepared)	5
Modern Language	5
Office Practices (Unprepared)	3
Store Practices (Unprepared)	3

* To include salesbook forms and elementary office practices.

they appear in operation. Because of this, the curricula in the eleventh and twelfth years must be so arranged that the so-called academic subjects will not hamper the opportunity for specific technical training.

The scheme of curricula organization for the Junior and Senior High School years as it is outlined is illustrative of the principles suggested in the preceding paragraphs. While the curricula are only suggestive, being general and not specific, it is hoped that they will make more clear the form the curricula organizations shall take.

In this organization of the curricula for the seventh, eighth, and ninth years, greater emphasis is placed on writing, English, and arithmetic, so that the pupil may obtain a more thorough training in these fundamental studies. Some small beginnings in technical work are included under the elective groups in the eighth and ninth years.

Beginning with the tenth year definite differentiations are made. At this point the pupil elects between a General Business Course and a Stenographic Course.

The rough choice made is not irrevocable, for by using the curriculum required subjects of one course as electives and making up the required subjects in the other course in the following year, a change from the one course to the other could be made without loss of time.

In the eleventh and twelfth years greater specialization and more flexibility are provided. The studies are grouped under four headings; the fundamental group which is required; the social group which is required; the technical group which is composed of the curriculum required and elective studies; and the general elective group.

TENTH YEAR

General Business Group

SUBJECTS	HRS.
Required	
English	3
English, Oral	1
English (Business Forms)	1
Commercial Geography	5
Physical Training	5
Bookkeeping, Elementary should be chosen by students pursuing General Business, Bookkeeping, or Financial Groups	
Elective	
Bookkeeping, Elementary	5
Typewriting I	5
Modern Language	5
Mathematics	3
Office Practice	3
Retail Salesmanship	5
Shipping Practice	5
Clerical Courses	5

Stenographic Group

SUBJECTS	HRS.
Required	
English	3
English, Oral	1
English (Business Forms)	1
Commercial Geography	5
Physical Training	5
Shorthand I	5
Typewriting I	5
Elective	
Modern Language	5
Mathematics	3
Office Practice	3

In the whole scheme, the core of each curriculum is in the group of social studies required year by year throughout the several years. Beginning with United States History in the seventh year and continuing through United States History and Civics in the eighth year, Problems in Citizenship (which should be studied from original sources — newspapers and periodicals) in the ninth year, Commercial Geography (social applications) in the tenth year, Economics in the eleventh year, and United States History and Civics or Social Problems in the twelfth year, the study included each year forms

			GENERAL GROUP ELECTIVE
G	FINANCING AND ASSUMING OF RISKS	REARRANGING AND SELLING	
ation 5		Elements of advertising 5 Elements of retail selling 5 Elements of wholesaling 5	Commercial history 5 Mathematics 5 Chemistry 5 Modern language 5 Physics 5
5 ony 5	Financial organization 5	Agricultural marketing problems 5 Advertising, soliciting 5 Salesmanship and retail store organization 5 Store practice and store mathematics 5 Selling organization 2 Wholesaling II 5 Advertising II 5 Marketing 5	Commercial art 4 Social problems 5 Rural sociology 5 Modern language 5 Mathematics 5 Physics 5 Chemistry 5

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL UNITS

SUGGESTED SCHEDULE

ELEVENTH AND TWELFTH YEARS

FUNDAMENTAL GROUP REQUIRED	SOCIAL GROUP REQUIRED	TECHNICAL GROUP REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE							GENERAL GROUP ELECTIVE
		ACCOUNTING	CLERKING	OFFICE MANAGING AND SUPERVISING	ASSEMBLING AND STORING	TRANSPORTING	FINANCING AND ASSUMING OF RISKS	REARRANGING AND SELLING	
ELEVENTH YEAR									
English, Oral ..... 2 English, Letter composition ..... 1 Physical training 5	English, Literature ..... 2 Economics 3	Bookkeeping, Intermediate 5	Shorthand II ..... 5 Typewriting II ..... 5 Mail carrier course ..... 5 Postal clerks course ..... 5 Clerical records and procedure 5	Business problems ..... 2 Office practices ..... 2 Rural business problems 2	Document technique of foreign trade ..... 7 Elements of buying 5	Elements of transportation 5		Elements of advertising ..... 5 Elements of retail selling ..... 5 Elements of wholesaling 5	Commercial history ..... 5 Mathematics ..... 5 Chemistry ..... 5 Modern language ..... 5 Physics 5
TWELFTH YEAR									
English, Commercial ..... 3 Physical training 3	English, Literature ..... 2 U. S. History and Civics 5	Bookkeeping, advanced ..... 5 Statistics 5	Shorthand III ..... 3 Typewriting III ..... 2 Secretarial practices ..... 5 History and organization of civil service 3	Cooperative forms of business organization ..... 2 Office devices ..... 2 Business organization ..... 2 Commercial law 3	Buying II ..... 5 Foreign trade sales methods 5	Transportation II ..... 5 Telegraphy or Telephony 5	Financial organization 5	Agricultural marketing problems ..... 5 Advertising, soliciting ..... 5 Salesmanship and retail store organization ..... 5 Store practice and store mathematics ..... 5 Selling organization ..... 5 Wholesaling II ..... 5 Advertising II ..... 5 Marketing 5	Commercial art ..... 4 Social problems ..... 5 Rural sociology ..... 5 Modern languages ..... 5 Mathematics ..... 5 Physics ..... 5 Chemistry 5

SUGGESTIVE GROUPING OF TECHNICAL AND GENERAL STUDIES FOR SPECIALIZED CURRICULA

BOOKKEEPING AND RECORD KEEPING GROUP	SPECIALIZED CLERKING GROUP	CIVIL SERVICE GROUP	SECRETARIAL GROUP	STENOGRAPHIC GROUP	GENERAL BUSINESS GROUP	RURAL BUSINESS GROUP	BUYING GROUP	FOREIGN TRADE GROUP	TRANSPORTATION GROUP	FINANCIAL GROUP	WHOLESALING GROUP	ADVERTISING GROUP	RETAIL SELLING GROUP
ELEVENTH YEAR													
Required: Bookkeeping, Intermediate Business problems Office practices Elective: Commercial history Modern language Mathematics Typewriting	Required: Office practices Specialized clerical course Typewriting Elective: Commercial history Mathematics	Required: Office practices Special commercial subject elected Elective: Commercial history Mathematics Bookkeeping	Required: Office practices Shorthand II Typewriting II Elective: Modern language Business problems	Required: Office practices Typewriting II Shorthand II Elective: Commercial history Mathematics	Required: Business problems Bookkeeping, Intermediate Elective: Commercial history Mathematics Office practices Elements of retail selling	Required: Bookkeeping, Intermediate (Rural applications) Rural business problems Elective: Commercial history Mathematics Chemistry Physics	Required: Business problems Elements of buying Elective: Commercial history Modern language Mathematics Chemistry	Required: Modern language Document technique of foreign trade Elective: Commercial history Mathematics Typewriting Bookkeeping	Required: Business problems Elements of transportation Elective: Commercial history Physics Mathematics Bookkeeping	Required: Bookkeeping, Intermediate Business problems Office practices Elective: Commercial history Mathematics	Required: Business problems Elements of wholesaling Elective: Commercial history Office practices Mathematics	Required: Business problems Elements of advertising Elective: Bookkeeping Modern language	Required: Business problems Elements of retail selling Elective: Commercial history Modern language Bookkeeping
TWELFTH YEAR													
Required: Commercial law Business organization Bookkeeping, Advanced Elective: Office devices Statistics Mathematics Modern language	Required: Business organization Statistics Specialty elected Elective: Office devices Commercial law Mathematics	Required: Civil service history and organization Special commercial subject continued Elective: Commercial law	Required: Shorthand III Typewriting III Secretarial practice Elective: Commercial law Modern language	Required: Shorthand III Typewriting III Office devices Elective: Commercial law Stenographic bureau organization and supervision	Required: Commercial law Business organization Special commercial subject continued Elective: Office devices Statistics Modern language Mathematics	Required: Commercial law Agricultural marketing problems Elective: Modern language Rural sociology Cooperative forms of business organization	Required: Marketing Buying II Elective: Modern language Mathematics	Required: Modern language Foreign trade sales practice Elective: Commercial law Mathematics Statistics	Required: Transportation II Shipping technique Elective: Commercial law Telegraphy or Telephony Mathematics	Required: Commercial law Business organization Financial organization Elective: Statistics Mathematics	Required: Commercial law Selling organization Wholesaling II Elective: Statistics Mathematics	Required: Commercial law Advertising II Elective: Commercial art Advertising soliciting	Required: Salesmanship and retail store organization Store practice and store mathematics Elective: Social problems Chemistry

the basis of and introduces the like work in the succeeding year. There is no definite break in the developing organization, and each succeeding unit of social study becomes more inclusive in helping the pupil to interpret the developing technical units.

Oral English is introduced in the eighth year and continued throughout the course for it is believed that this study has been neglected. A great proportion of business English is spoken English, and yet little or no time in current curricula has been allotted for the oral English. By the time the English work of the eighth grade is completed the pupil should be able to spell, punctuate, capitalize, abbreviate, and should have a reasonable working vocabulary. He should be able to understand simple directions and to express himself intelligibly. The work in perfecting these fundamentals is carried on throughout the course but beginning with the tenth year, the English work becomes more of a social study and contributes to the aims of the social studies. Throughout, the literature should be carefuly chosen, not only for its literary value, but also for its social, civic, and vocational contributions.

Physical training, largely composed of directed play, is offered five hours each week except in the twelfth year. It is given only three hours a week in the twelfth year in order to minimize the required work, and thus afford more time for elective studies.

The technical studies are introduced so that each unit of work while forming the basis for more advanced work is a complete preparation for a particular task in commerce, should the pupil leave school at the end of any period. For the pupil who can continue his education, the work of the six years gives him the adequate prep-

aration to undertake in college, the advanced types of work in finance, foreign trade, administration, etc.

In the technical courses, no attempt has been made to limit the meaning of such work as "Rural Business Problems," "Transportation," "Elements of Buying," or "Telegraphy," etc. The local social and economic situation must dictate not only what shall be included as the necessary survey work in a technical field, but also what shall be emphasized in the technique of the specific study. In some instances part-time work should be introduced as early as the eleventh year, more especially if this year is to be the pupil's last one in school.

The titles of the suggested groupings are but indicative of possible specialization. It is unlikely that any public secondary school could undertake so complete a differentiation of curricula. A choice of the work to be offered in any particular place will depend upon the local social and economic needs. The small school will have to choose wisely from the possibilities and not attempt to give too many opportunities where there is a limited number of pupils or no economic justification.

CHAPTER VIII

PART-TIME EDUCATION IN COMMERCE

The development of part-time education classes is rapidly bringing about between commerce and the schools a more complete understanding that they are partners in the education of the commercial personnel. Only through their effective coöperation can the exacting and thorough training necessary in the modern complex commercial life be obtained.

During the past decade two kinds of these part-time education schools have developed in our educational system: (1) the voluntary part-time schools, and (2) the compulsory part-time schools (continuation schools). The marked characteristics of each of these two types of schools have been contrasted in the following columns:

Voluntary Part-Time Schools	*Compulsory Part-Time Schools* (Continuation Schools)
The work is organized under a local program.	The work is organized under a state program.
The pupils are taken from school and placed in commercial work for limited periods each week.	The pupils are taken from commercial work and returned to the classroom for limited periods each week.
The classroom work is of primary importance. Usually not more than half time in the last year is spent in commercial work.	The work of commerce is of primary importance. A minimum amount of time is spent in classroom, usually four to eight hours per week.

The work is closely coördinated with commerce.	The work may or may not be correlated with or imposed upon the background furnished by regular employment.
The work in commerce is supervised by school authorities.	The work in commerce is directly under commercial management and the school work under the school authorities.
The attendance is voluntary.	The attendance is compulsory.
The curriculum is ordered very largely to increase technical efficiency.	The curriculum is ordered either to increase social knowledge, or to improve technical efficiency, or both.

While these characteristics are at present in marked contrast, it is very certain that they will tend to merge and eventually one type of school will result.

In this country voluntary part-time education was established before compulsory part-time education, but it was not until 1917 that a very effective attempt was made to organize voluntary part-time education for commerce. This was undertaken in Rochester, New York. Here the alternate-week plan was established and the two high schools, the East High School and the West High School, each furnished a certain number of pupils to the project. After the school authorities had held a conference with the employers, the pupils were sent to these employers to do their own bargaining and finally to secure their own positions. When the pupil had secured his place, he was given instructions as to what could be expected of him by the employer for whom he was to work. Standard practice was held up as the guide for these pupils who were to be in the class-room one

week and in commerce the alternate week. The formal relationship between the school, the commercial institution, and the pupil, was established by a contract. When the pupil reported for his work the employer was given certain forms which showed hours of employment, type of work undertaken, and the progress of the pupil from the employer's viewpoint. These were to be filled out and returned to the coördinator each week. In addition to this weekly report a general report was usually handed in by the employer just before the end of the term, and this was taken into consideration in making out the pupil's grade.

This more or less typical plan is different from most other voluntary part-time school plans only in that the teacher having charge of the commercial classes of pupils undertaking the part-time work is held responsible for the coördination of the programs of the school and of commerce. Only the senior pupils undertake any of the part-time classes, and the work of the schools is so arranged that these pupils are grouped in separate classes, and thus they do not interfere with the non-coöperating senior groups.

The Pittsburgh coöperative plan is organized along similar lines, and it has developed far enough to show that the work has been successful in commercial subjects. The Peabody and the Fifth Avenue High School of Pittsburgh put the pupils of the commercial classes on half-time training during the last semester of the senior year. The pupils are paired and sent on alternate weeks to certain representative firms. A unique feature of this plan is the uniform scale of wages for all pupil-workers without regard to the type of work undertaken. A report of the plan shows that no better part-time

" laboratory than the actual office work could be furnished. Pupils see that the rules of school, often regarded as arbitrary, are the rules observed in business offices. They are impressed, as the school could never impress them, with the importance of accuracy, of speed, of regularity, of punctuality, of seriousness, and of many of the requirements of the business world. Each week many suggestions, helpful to the teacher, are brought back by the pupil."

Boston carries on part-time work in retail salesmanship as well as in other special lines. Similar work is carried on in Cleveland, Chicago, Cincinnati, Kansas City, San Francisco, and other cities. In the New York part-time plan the classes in particular phases of certain businesses bring about a very special coördination between the formal school work of the last year and the work that the pupils are to undertake in commerce.

The success of voluntary part-time education is marked not only in large cities, but in the smaller cities and towns as well. Chicopee, Mass., Ogden, Utah, and Salem, Oregon, with their very limited student bodies, have an effective scheme of part-time education upon the alternate-week basis. The work is carried on very largely through the efforts of individual commercial teachers who feel that the plan is so worth while that they are using every endeavor to make it successful. It is more difficult in the smaller cities and towns to make such work effective because of the limited number of stores and offices in which to place part-time pupils.

In almost all instances it seems to be a common experience that voluntary part-time work, after it is once established, develops rather slowly, for there are always many adjustments to be made between coöperating firms

and schools. The successful attempts show the slow steady development that is the result of constant endeavor on the part of school authorities to bring about the complete coöperation between all parties. The establishment of these relationships is usually left in the hands of the coördinator who assumes the position of the "go-between" between the school and the commercial institution.

Certain alleged objections to the voluntary part-time courses have been raised. These have been concisely stated and answered by Mr. F. G. Nichols in the following terms, and should perhaps be considered before discussing the problems involved in arranging part-time courses.[1]

1. "Students who are sent out into offices, stores, or shops are exploited by unscrupulous employers who give them only routine and uneducational duties to perform."

If care in the selection of coöperating firms is not taken this result will surely follow. If, on the other hand, only those employers who are known to have a real interest in social and educational problems are selected, no such result will follow. Then, too, a definite agreement must be entered into between the school, the parent, and the employer whereby it is provided that pupil-workers will be rotated in the different positions of the office, so as to give them an all-round experience. Weekly reports on work done, handed to the teacher each week by the student, will act as an effective check on the employer who is inclined to forget his contractual obligation and keep his group on unprofitable tasks.

2. It has been asserted that "business men will not want to bother with alternate-week employees."

[1] "Commercial Education," Bulletin No. 34, Federal Board for Vocational Education. Page 24 ff.

The fact is that in every community there are real live business men who will welcome any chance to take a hand in the formal training of their office help. The future of the business often depends upon the wise selection of such help. A canvas in any industrial center will reveal sufficient coöperative opportunities.

3. It has been offered as an objection that "even if the employer is sympathetic, the superintendent, employment manager, or some other executive will prove a stumbling block."

This need not be the case if the man on the firing line to whose interest it is to handle the whole matter intelligently and successfully is found. More such men exist in every community than is at first apparent.

4. Another contention is that "the wages are usually less than are paid for similar full-time service and rarely pay for the educational loss sustained by the pupils."

The wages paid to part-time workers for the time actually employed should be the same as those being paid beginners for similar service. In fact more is being paid in one city to such workers because of their better general education and special training. This is all a matter of agreement between the employer and the school. According to the testimony of those who have been dealing with this problem in a part-time plan the loss referred to is far less than is supposed by those who have never conducted such classes.

5. "The expense for 'coördinators' is excessive" is another often repeated charge against such a plan. If each "coördinator" is made responsible for two groups of pupils whom he teaches alternate weeks, the expense will be less even than for full-time work, as each teacher will handle twice as many classes. Expensive administrative machinery is not essential to the success of this plan. In fact the more teachers that can be brought into contact with business through this coöperative work, the larger will be the benefit to commercial education.

6. It is often advanced against part-time commercial courses that " office work is so complex that it is not feasible to have one person on a job one week and another person the next week. Saturday left-over memoranda, etc., can not be handled successfully by the alternate-week worker."

At first this was considered a serious question, and to overcome this imaginary difficulty both pupils were required to be on the job Saturday in one city. As this was found to be unnecessary, the practice was soon discontinued. Only large offices in which there is an opportunity for a desirable permanent connection in prospect for one or more of the part-time pupils should be selected for this important coöperative education. In such offices the carry-over difficulty is more apparent than real.

The success of the voluntary part-time work is usually to be measured through the coöperation between the commercial firm and the school. So after a careful organization of the work on the part of the educational system, the remaining step is to make a wise selection of the firms that are to be partners with the schools in the undertaking. In the selection of such commercial houses the following consideration should be kept in mind:

The firms should have recognized standing in the community.

They should be in sympathy with the plan and should have accepted it for the advantages offered to them as well as to the school and pupils; that is, they must not regard it as philanthropy on their part.

They should be large enough to be able to absorb the part-time pupils upon the completion of the course.

They should be willing to agree, in the form of a contract, to the following: to rotate coöperative pupils through the various phases of the work of the

store or the office; not to employ pupils on full time until they graduate, except with the consent of the school authorities; to join in conferences with other firms and with school representatives for the discussion of problems; to give the coördinator permission to inspect the work of pupils in the store or in the office; to make a monthly report to the proper authorities on the work of each individual pupil-worker.

They should have a representative who will take a personal interest in the pupil group, and will be responsible for the working out of the plan.

Selection on any other basis than this is likely to result in exploitation of pupils by employing firms, or is likely to bring about an indifferent coöperation which will counteract the purpose of the voluntary part-time plan. In many of the first attempts at voluntary part-time education the school authorities pressed their case upon the idea of public service alone, having in mind a public service that was entirely divorced from the service rendered by the commercial institution. Very naturally the organization of the work upon this partial basis was only indifferently successful. The successful work has had the logical social and economic bases. Also in the early development of the work it was thought necessary to call a great many conferences to bring about close coöperation. It is true that many questions can be best developed in conferences, but if the coördinator has his work well in hand it will be unnecessary to call many informal meetings.

After the firms have designated their willingness to enter into the coöperative endeavor it is best to have a definite contract drawn up which will form the basis for all negotiations between the contracting parties. Misunderstandings may thus be done away with, and the

ordering of the work on this basis partakes of a more serious and definite arrangement. Under the contract all agreements are stated and the reports expected from the employer are specified. These reports should be so drawn up as to protect the worker against exploitation or any failure to receive genuine opportunity, and to give the employer's estimate of the capability and development of the pupil-employee. As one of the agreements, the salary is usually arranged in the contract. It should be impressed upon the pupils that the beginning compensations are of little or no consequence in comparison with the opportunity offered for development. Experience has shown that in most instances there will be very little difference made in the salaries of regular employees and of part-time employees for like work undertaken. In the contract it should be agreed also that the employers will not attempt to attract pupils from their school course by offers of full-time employment. Premature full-time employment will defeat the purposes of part-time education.

The organization of the school curriculum is another point which must be considered in any voluntary part-time system. The commercial curriculum should leave the last year comparatively free from academic work in order that the pupil may have time for the coöperative work and still keep abreast with regular classes. In larger schools where there are enough pupils to segregate part-time pupils from non-coöperating groups, the problem is comparatively simple, but where the number of pupils in the last year of high school is small the problem is more difficult. The organization of the curriculum for the inclusion of voluntary part-time work should not invalidate the claims of those not in the part-

time groups. In small secondary schools it has been found hard to organize this work without interfering with regular sessions. Starting classes early enough to get the regular academic work through by eleven o'clock, so that the pupils can work in the stores during the mid-day periods, is one scheme that has been used. Again two small cities plan all their part-time work for afternoons, Saturdays, holidays and vacations. This work is carried on under the supervision of the instructor, and is successful.

On the whole voluntary part-time education has been very successful. Some of the advantages derived from such work may be summarized as follows:

To the Pupil:

The pupil realizing the association between school and business finds his work alive — a part of every-day life.

The school helps him over the rough places in his first business experience.

The plan saves some time for him by minimizing his apprenticeship.

He receives a certain limited financial assistance.

He develops more specifically the qualities essential to commercial and social life.

To Commerce:

The plan gives the firm an increased interest and desire for educational advancement of all employees.

It gives the firm a chance to secure selected recruits to add to its personnel.

The firm obtains profitable service commensurate with wages paid, and usually at times when most needed.

There is an opportunity for the firm to advise with the school authorities about what training it considers most essential.

The reactions upon the school are only of value as they affect the pupils or bear upon the attitude of the commercial institutions toward education for commerce. Whatever success voluntary part-time education has had, perhaps its greatest contribution will be made in the future as it points out needed modifications in compulsory part-time education.

Compulsory part-time (or continuation) education for commerce is essentially different from voluntary endeavors in that the pupils of specific ages are required to attend school during certain working hours, if they are not otherwise in school attendance. The movement to organize such work is new in the United States. It started in 1910 with the passing of a law in the State of Ohio, definitely referring to "continuation schools." A year later the State of Wisconsin enacted a compulsory part-time school law, and from these beginnings the idea has developed until in 1921 over twenty states have formulated and enacted legislation making compulsory part-time work a part of the state school systems. The following table (Table XVII) presents a summary of the number of such states and the essential requirement of the laws enacted.

Most of the compulsory part-time classes have been undertaken so recently that it is not very easy to estimate the value of the work, but there are certain principles that seem to be almost universally accepted by those organizing such classes. Compulsory part-time classes should provide for certain different groups of pupils. One group is those pupils over fourteen years of age who have completed only a part of the regular compulsory day-school work and have undertaken rather permanent employment. Such pupils need work to help

TABLE XVII

Summary of Principal Requirements of Laws Providing for Part-Time Schools, by States (1)

No. State	Minimum no. of minors required to start classes	Ages of required attendance	Hrs. per week required in attendance	Length of school year	Time for holding classes between or during
1 Arizona	15	14-16	5	150 hrs.	8 A.M. – 6 P.M.
2 California	12	14–18	4	36 wks.	8–5
3 Connecticut	(2)	14–16	8	16 wks.	Evening
4 Illinois	20	14–18	8	36 wks.	8–5
5 Indiana	(2)	14–16	4	Full sch. yr.	8–5
6 Iowa	15	14–16	8	" " "	8–6
7 Massachusetts (3)	200	14–16	4	" " "	8–5
8 Michigan	50	14–18	8	" " "	8–5
9 Missouri	25	14–16	4	" " "	8–5
10 Montana	15	14–16	4	" " "	8–6
11 Nebraska	15	14–16	8	144 hrs.	(5)
12 Nevada	15	14–18	4	Full sch. yr.	8–6
13 New Hampshire (6)	(5)	16–21	(5)	(5)	(5)
14 New Jersey	20	14–16	6	36 wks.	8–5
15 New Mexico	15	14–16	5	150 hrs.	8–6
16 New York (4)	20	14–18	4–8	Full sch. yr.	8–5
17 Oklahoma	20	16–18	(5)	144 hrs.	(5)
18 Oregon	15	14–18	5	Full sch. yr.	8–6
19 Pennsylvania	(5)	14–16	8	(4)	8–5
20 Rhode Island (6)	20	16–21	(5)	200 hrs.	(5)
21 South Dakota (6)	(5)	16–21	8	200 hrs.	Evening
22 Utah	15	14–18	4	144 hrs.	8–5
23 Washington	15	14–18	4	Full sch. yr.	8–5
24 West Virginia	(2)	14–16	5	20 wks.	(5)
25 Wisconsin	(7)	14–17	(5)	Full sch. yr.	(5)

(1) Vocational Summary, June, 1919. Page 22.

(2) Every child who possesses an employment certificate and has not completed elementary schools.

(3) Every city or town.

(4) Every school district of 5,000 population or more.

(5) Not specified.

(6) Americanization classes only.

(7) Every child attending some other school. Apprentices required to attend vocational school five hours per week for first two years of apprenticeship.

them develop their meagre fundamental and social-civic education and to make them better members of the community in which they live. Again there are those pupils who have completed their entire elementary school course and perhaps part of their high school work, who find themselves with too limited a background and who wish to prepare themselves for a more satisfactory position or to help themselves develop a greater capacity for leadership in social and political life. Another group is formed of those who are unfamiliar with English and who need a practical knowledge of the language as well as of the social, political, and economic institutions of our society. Certain pupils, more especially in the sixteen to eighteen-year-old groups, desire to acquire a knowledge and training in some single vocational specialization.

In planning compulsory part-time work these pupils with their varied interests and abilities must be differentiated into more or less like groupings before feasible objectives can be established. As Professor Snedden says "the most certain method of establishing objectives for compulsory part-time schools is to establish reasonably homogeneous 'case groups' of pupils, corrected by corresponding analysis of the attainments and defects of adult case groups most nearly resembling in their antecedents the pupil 'case groups' considered. The bases of differentiation ought obviously to include: (*a*) sex; (*b*) present social and economic environment; (*c*) present health condition; (*d*) intelligence rating; (*e*) present social character; (*f*) present culture; (*g*) probable economic future; (*h*) race and color; (*i*) aesthetic interests; (*j*) sporting interests; (*k*) ambitions; (*l*) recency of family immigration." With this analysis

the aims of compulsory part-time education can be clearly and specifically established. They will be general or vocational or both, and it is particularly important that they be differentiated, for disparate aims will defeat the purpose of the limited amount of time set aside.

The general education offered should be ordered either to make up the deficiencies in the education obtained in previous schooling, or to make contributions along certain fundamental lines of work. In either event the purposes of the work should be very clear in the mind of the pupil, the instructor, and the coördinator.

In the vocational fields the work offered will be either extension or basic; that is, further preparation in a given occupational field, or work which undertakes to give the student a basis for a new occupational specialization. The opportunities for extension training will depend upon the employments represented in the clientele of the school; commercial occupations will probably be in the great preponderance. In almost every compulsory part-time organization commercial studies form the backbone of the vocational courses. Without considerable modification of the current programs it is unlikely that the compulsory part-time classes can hope to accomplish much in basic education for the group of pupils between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, but there will be a possibility of greater results with the group from sixteen to eighteen years of age. It seems altogether likely that the larger contributions of compulsory part-time education will be made in the field of fundamental and social-civic education rather than in the vocational fields.

In order to obtain maximum results in the vocational

fields, it is necessary to order the courses so that the objectives of achievement may be easily comprehended by the pupil, and directly related to his life by meeting his needs, deficiencies or interests. Experience is showing that the best method of establishing these continuation classes is upon the short unit basis, each unit having a specific vocational objective, and at the same time being a part of a sequence of units which when undertaken and completed by the pupil would definitely prepare him for some specific work in commerce. This type of organization gives secondary place to the time element, for the pupil is allowed to undertake any succeeding sequential unit of work as fast as he is able to meet the specific objectives of the necessary introductory unit. In this way his entire training is based on his willingness and ability to accomplish. He realizes that purposeful endeavor is the means of satisfying the immediate desire or need and the way of attaining more remote objectives. As in the regular day school work the completion of a sequence of units that form a specific course of study should give the pupil a certificate which would certify him to employers as being prepared in a given field. The grading on such certificates should be perhaps two markings such as " qualified " and " well qualified " to undertake ——— work. In every instance the technique should be gauged according to the standard practice in the commercial pursuit in the particular community.

The difficulty of obtaining a trained personnel hinders the development of part-time education for commerce. At the present time it is very hard to obtain the right type of teachers. In the first place the salary schedules are too low to attract men and women who are capable

of offering technical instruction, and again there are but few commercial technicians who are trained in instruction methods. The latter qualification is essential if part-time classes are to be effective. This will be especially true if the instructors are in any way responsible for a coördination of employment, school, home, and outside activities.

However, in most instances this work of coördination is not left to the instructor, but is turned over to an official usually called a "coördinator." Two theories are developing as to the status of this "coördinator" in the part-time organization. In some instances it is expected that he shall carry on work of instruction as well as the administrative duties that fall upon him. The proponents of this theory contend that the coördinator must meet with the pupils in the class in order to know their needs. In this way he will never become biased in favor of commercial institutions. The work of some of the better organized part-time departments is disproving the need for such a check and is tending to substantiate the second theory, namely that the coördinator shall be relieved from instruction and shall give his time to the organization of the instruction units and the supervision of the work of the part-time teacher. A partial list of a few of the qualifications and duties of the coördinator, as given by directors of part-time work, will best help to define current practices.

1. The coördinator should be able to inform individual employers and parents of the importance, purposes, and needs of the instruction as provided by the compulsory part-time continuation school law.
2. He should keep abreast with the developing field of personnel administration, more especially employment methods and psychology, job analysis, etc.

3. He should have a full knowledge of the training and educational needs of workers as defined by business executives, educators, and the workers themselves.

4. He should be able to analyze educational needs, define the minimum essentials in education, outline subject matter so that a maximum of training for social and economic membership in the community may be accomplished in the limited time available.

5. He should know the state education laws and tendencies in educational legislation.

6. He should understand the commerce of the community so that in arranging part-time classes and soliciting the support of the employer, intelligent, helpful and workable suggestions may be made concerning the office or store.

7. He should understand the parent's problems, worries, and trials in supporting, governing, and educating the family, that he may show the relation of part-time education to these problems.

8. He should be able to advise, encourage, and inspire teachers of part-time classes as well as to undertake emergency teaching.

9. He should understand the organization of the regular day school system so that he can get complete coöperation between its organization and the part-time organization.

10. He should be able to address groups of pupils, parents, business people, and teachers, on the requirements, law, ideals, and results of part-time education.

11. He should be able to give a certain amount of vocational guidance.

From such recommendations it is apparent that the functions of the coördinator are conceived of as being largely administrative. As one director of part-time education has stated it, "the coördinator is to part-time organization what the vice-principal is to the high school."

In regard to the question of centralization or decentralization of part-time class work, the experience in the larger cities seems to show that the work can be more successfully organized and supervised under a centralized system. In every instance the question is tied up with budgetary considerations. It seems to be a universal experience that a centralized system will cost less per student hour of instruction than the loosely organized or decentralized plan. Some work, such as that in the meat packing institutions in Chicago, shows certain advantages in a more or less decentralized plan of organization, but it must be remembered that in such cases the sizes of the commercial units and their proximity to each other have a great deal to do with making a judgment as to the comparative success or failure of the type of organization. In a small district it seems as though of necessity there would have to be much centralization. Perhaps the best practice at this time would be a centralization within economically efficient districts.

A number of the problems presented in organizing and administering a system of compulsory part-time education are summarized in an unpublished report of the Los Angeles Compulsory Part-Time Organization as follows:

I. Establishment of Compulsory Part-Time Education

A. Publicity for Compulsory Part-Time Education

1. Need of publicity
   a. Selling the idea
      (1) To commercial employers
      (2) To the homes
      (3) To the school authorities
      (4) To the pupils
      (5) To commercial organizations

2. Types of publicity
   a. General publicity
      (1) Through organizations
      (2) Through the press
      (3) Through the schools
   b. Specific publicity
      (1) Letters and circulars to employers
      (2) Letters and circulars to employees
      (3) Personal visits

B. Resolutions of Public Bodies

C. Adoption of Plan by Educational Authorities

II. The Organization of Compulsory Part-Time Education

A. Office Organization

1. The Staff
   a. Executives
   b. Coördinators
   c. Staff of Instruction
   d. Clerical and Statistical Staff

B. Organization of Instruction

1. Internal development
2. Centralized vs. separate units system
3. Factory, industrial and commercial classes vs. institutional classes
4. Instruction content material
   a. Demands from Industry
   b. Coöperation of Industry
   c. Service of Instruction for Industry
   d. Types of Classes
   e. Course of Study
   f. Text books
   g. Use of outside materials
      (1) Supplementary instruction, material type
      (2) Magazines and current literature
      (3) House Organs
         (*a*) Description of
         (*b*) List of important ones in U. S.

5. Correlation
   a. Instruction and Job
      (1) Job Analyses
      (2) Special services of instruction
         (*a*) Merchandise Lists
         (*b*) Delivery Lists
         (*c*) Merchandise directories
         (*d*) Merchandise spellers and abbreviations
   b. Job training

III. Administration of Compulsory Part-Time Education

A. Analysis of pupil
1. Type
2. Health
3. Social conditions
4. Employment
5. Education

B. Analysis of employment for part-time boys and girls
1. Types of commercial activities
2. Age groupings

C. Teacher preparation and training
1. Teacher qualifications
2. Teacher growth and development
3. Teacher training
4. Teacher selection
5. Teacher specialization

D. Supervision
1. Type
2. Purpose
3. Service rendered

E. Coördination

In conclusion, the establishment of part-time work is but a rounding out of the scheme of education. It gives to those pupils whom social or economic conditions

have forced to leave school the opportunity to avail themselves of the advantages of further educational study. The widening field of the part-time work is emphasized by the fact that employers, when once the compulsory part-time classes are organized in their businesses, are asking for extension of the work to include in some form of educational endeavor, those employees not specifically covered under the compulsory law. In the end, under this effective combination of practice and talking about practice, there is a greater likelihood that the pupil will have a better chance to become more efficient than under any system of pure theory courses.

CHAPTER IX

PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION FOR EVENING COMMERCIAL CLASSES

Any program of commercial education would be incomplete without making provision for the employed members of the community, both those who are above the regular day school age, and those of day school age (over sixteen) who have been forced to enter employment early. The provision for such persons should be made by the organization of evening classes.

In the beginning it must be recognized that evening classes have many limitations. They are held at the end of the day's work when the mind and the body of the worker in attendance are usually fatigued. The time available for instruction in any one evening is short, and the limited number of evenings per week does not permit of continuous work. Change of residence, the shifting of work, the overtime in regular employment, ill health, holidays and days of religious observance, as well as the natural attraction of legitimate recreation are likely to affect the attendance at such classes, and thus decrease the efficiency of instruction and retard the work.

Recognizing these limitations the fact still remains that evening classes are one of the very important means of training commercial workers. Under the present social and economic organization no other time is available.

The evening hours of the worker constitute the only time which is free for him to use for his personal advancement.

Evening school work is made imperative by the great dropping out of pupils at the end of the early high school years, and the meagreness of the commercial education received in the seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth years. "With respect to the grade reached, more than three-quarters of the pupils who enter (school) reach the sixth grade and about one-half complete the work of the elementary school. About one-third only, however, enter the first grade of the high school, and about one-eighth or one-ninth complete the high school course."[1] These figures show the great need of offering opportunity for further training to the great majority of those who leave school early.

The opportunities for effective work in the evening school are found in the interest and directness of purpose of those in attendance. The pupil expects the evening class to fit him in some definite way for his present occupation, or for another vocation that he expects to follow. Thus there are two distinct types of training which the evening classes must offer, "extension training," which seeks to improve the pupils in phases of their present occupations, and "preparatory training," which prepares the pupils for work in new vocations. The basis of extension training is to be found in the needs and procedure of the work performed by the several members of the class. This necessitates a complete coördination of the theory of the class-room and the practical work of the office and store, each contributing its share to the training of the pupil. In the preparatory

[1] Inglis, Alexander, "Principles of Secondary Education." Page 287 ff.

classes the materials of instruction are not so directly connected with the vocations pursued by the pupils, and owing to the very nature of the elementary studies, the problems of coördinating practice and thinking about practice are much simplified. The studies are more elementary and usually require a certain amount of technical skill as in "arithmetic" preparatory to "bookkeeping," in "shorthand" and "English" preparatory to secretarial work. Further, as soon as the elementary work is mastered sufficiently, the pupil should be placed in a position (according to his ability) in the new occupation he is planning to follow, so that he will lose little time in effecting the transfer and start as early as possible upon the chosen vocation.

A study of attendance statistics for thirty-four evening commercial classes in New York City, Cleveland, Los Angeles, and Portland shows that:

1. Men over twenty-one years of age who are regularly employed are the most regular attendants.
2. Employed women between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one (unmarried) form the second group in regularity of attendance.
3. Young men under twenty-one years of age (irregularly employed) form the third group in regularity of attendance.
4. Married women form the fourth group in regularity of attendance.

These deductions indicate that the greater part of the evening commercial classes should be composed of workers regularly employed in some vocation. This principle is further substantiated by the opinions of teachers, as illustrated by the statement of a teacher of bookkeeping in the McKinley Avenue Evening High School of Los Angeles. "The best work in my classes

is done by the person who is regularly engaged in his vocation. If a boy comes to the evening class and does not have a job we insist that he get one. The school helps him to do this." That this evening high school recognized that help in locating a position for the pupil was part of its function indicates that the school was filling an important place in the community which it served. It is apparent, at once, that the worker with the greater apperceptive basis will make the best pupil. So in cases where pupils do not have practical experience the insistence upon their obtaining a position seems to be the practical solution for supplying this deficiency.

As has been shown in discussing the regular (day) courses of study, the work of the evening classes should also grow out of the demands of commercial activities and be adapted to the occupational needs of the pupils. New York has found it imperative to base its evening class work upon the needs of the commercial enterprises in which the pupils are engaged, or the pupils attend private night schools. Cleveland gives much attention to stenographic work because, as a large manufacturing and distributing center, it requires many stenographers and clerks to care for shipping and storage records, and correspondence. When one of the evening high schools in this city had the typewriters removed for a period of time, the attendance fell off over 60 per cent. Because of the insistent demand, the evening high schools of Los Angeles have been called upon to include advertising (inclusive of window display) in the courses of study. These classes have been very successful. A study of the work done in the classes of the evening high schools of Los Angeles and Boston shows that in both instances the successful classes were the ones which developed

out of the needs of those commercial activities in which the pupils in attendance were employed.

If the courses offered should always grow out of the demands of commercial activities, the instruction should be dominated by a large body of current experience. In the earliest bookkeeping classes this was carried to the extreme as an instructor was usually hired because of his knowledge of the work and with little or no regard to his teaching ability. This resulted in very poor instruction. Caring for a set of books and the teaching of bookkeeping are far from being identical. At the present time, the emphasis has shifted too much upon the teaching. Some systems of bookkeeping that are not used in current commercial practice are being taught simply because they follow some particular method of instruction. However, in other classes, the bookkeeping instruction is based upon the same principles and uses the same methods as practiced by the leading firms in which the pupils are employed. The problems which arise out of the day's work are discussed in the evening class. Where common principles cannot be used individual instruction is given. In all cases the pupils are getting work which is dominated by the actual experiences they have to meet, and hence a considerable amount of skill in the methods used in actual practice is acquired. This same principle should be carried out in preparing the several courses which are to be offered in the evening commercial classes.

Since common experience and abilities facilitate the carrying on of class work, it is well to ascertain from enrollment records and conference notes the experience, employment, age, ability, and aims of the pupils. These common elements are the foundation on which classes

can be organized and group teaching based. All cities offering commercial work attempt to group pupils in some way according to common elements but the desire of the pupils is, perhaps, the element most depended upon. This latter basis of grouping retards the development of the work, for in a great many instances pupils do not know what work will be of most value to them. Too often they are allowed to enter the evening classes without the necessary educational background or technical experience; as a result they soon become discouraged, their attendance becomes irregular or ceases altogether. Pupils should be carefully interviewed at the time of their enrollment in order to determine just what work will best fit them for what they want to accomplish. The principal of a certain evening high school which has an enrollment of about five hundred pupils, not only sees that each pupil is carefully interviewed at the time of enrollment, but follows this interview with another soon after the pupil has taken up the class-work. This is done in order to determine whether the pupils are satisfied that they are entering classes which will serve them best. This principal claims that he finds many adjustments which can be made to the advantage of the pupils and of the class work, and that such "changes result in better attendance, and a higher standard of work." This grouping according to experience has been effectively accomplished in New York City. Beginning classes in stenography have certain prerequisite courses, and bookkeeping classes have admission standards in arithmetic and English. Boston, San Francisco, and other cities have their work organized upon a similar basis. This forms more homogeneous classes and hence results in more efficient instruction.

Though the pupils of the evening classes may be classified in a more or less homogeneous group for instructional purposes, much individual instruction must be given in order to adapt the work to the particular need of each pupil. This necessitates small classes. In New York a minimum of fifteen pupils forms a class, and in Springfield, Massachusetts, seven pupils are considered enough to warrant the establishing of a class. In commenting upon the evening school situation in the United States, Mr. Sadler [1] points out that small classes are one of the most favorable features of the work, because they permit the teacher to give a great amount of individual instruction. The common opinion of teachers and supervisors of evening work in Boston and New York City is that the most successful classes in evening commercial work are the smaller classes where the teacher has an opportunity of studying the needs of the pupil. A supervisor of evening school work in Boston stated that "the evening school teacher must act in a dual capacity — he must be a teacher and a coördinator." Whether the teaching function does not include the latter is a matter of opinion, but it is true that the successful instruction in the evening class is that instruction which adapts the class-room work to the individual technical problems of the individual members of the class.

Another problem before the administrator of evening continuation education is to "try to get each pupil to map out a program extending over a sufficiently long period to insure reasonable mastery of not only the main subjects (of the course) but essential related subjects

[1] Sadler, M. E. "Continuation Schools in England and Elsewhere." Page 650.

also. In the case of the one who has not had business education this may mean several years." [1] This principle contemplates the inclusion of vocational guidance, and the arrangement of classes to provide training in all phases of commercial activity for which the course is designed. In Los Angeles provision is made for the several phases of advertising, i.e., "ad-writing," "commercial art," "card writing," and "window display." The Cleveland course in "stenography" includes "shorthand," "typewriting," "filing," "business correspondence," and "office practice." This provision for all phases of the line of work to be followed permits the pupil to outline a thorough course in technical training.

The study of evening commercial courses shows that they are organized according to two distinct methods, the "long course" and the "short unit" course. Results in those cases where the short unit courses are being tried (for example, Boston and Worcester) seem to indicate that they are the more efficient method of organization for evening school work in commercial training. Each short unit course deals directly, adequately, yet briefly with a single phase of the subject taught. And as organized, in most instances, these units fall into a sequence so that they provide a complete course of training in any field for those who pursue a "service" of units.[2]

When a pupil wants only technical training in some

[1] The Federal Board of Vocational Education. Bulletin 1919, No. 34, "Organization and Administration of Commercial Education." Page 38.

[2] The term "service" is used to designate a series of short unit courses which make up a complete course covering the entire field. For example, "bookkeeping" is divided into four units which when completed form a "service" or completed course.

one phase of a special field he attends the unit course which applies in his case. This makes for economy of his time by giving him the specific training wanted in the fewest possible lessons. The length of the units is determined by the time necessary to adequately treat the subject considered. For example, the unit plan of organization of evening commercial work as shown in Appendix A gives four units of ten weeks (sixty hours each) for "bookkeeping," four units of twenty weeks (one hundred and twenty hours each) for "shorthand," and two units of twenty weeks (sixty hours each) for "business correspondence."

The evening class work of Chicago, Boston, New York City, and other cities organized in this way is very successful. One supervisor (Boston) says that "the short unit course is responsible for a great increase in the efficiency of our class work." Kalamazoo, Michigan, one of the small cities, has found "this type of organization very advantageous." It provides for the proper classification of pupils not possible under the old organization of the long course. Boston offers a short unit course of ten lessons in salesmanship as outlined in Appendix B. "Such courses are being carried on successfully in large and small cities."[1] "The evening work in the Holyoke Vocational School, New York City, is organized on the short unit plan. The effect on attendance alone (as indicated below) not to mention numerous educational advantages, has justified the adoption of this plan."[2]

[1] Federal Board for Vocational Education. Bulletin 1919, No. 22, "Retail Selling." Page 35.

[2] New York City, Department of Education, Division of Reference and Research, 1915, Publication No. 12.

1. Average percentage of attendance in two best classes run on short unit plan 96.3%
   Average percentage of attendance in two best classes run on long unit plan 84.5%
   Increase secured by operating short unit plan 11.8%

2. Average percentage of attendance in two poorest classes run on short unit plan 72.8%
   Average percentage of attendance in two poorest classes run on long unit plan 67.6%
   Increase secured by operating the short unit plan 5.2%

3. Average percentage of attendance for three months in eleven classes run on short unit plan 78.5%
   Average percentage of attendance for three months in eleven classes run on long unit plan 59.3%
   Increase by operating the short unit plan 19.2%

The effectiveness of the short unit course may be summarized in the following statement: Because of efficient organization of the materials of instruction and skill in presenting the work, the pupil's attention is concentrated upon certain specific technical training which will at the same time adequately meet his immediate needs and prepare him for further training.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ORGANIZATION OF COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS ON THE UNIT PLAN[1]

[1] Federal Board for Vocational Education Bulletin (1919) No. 34. "Organization and Administration of Commercial Education." Page 42.

(40 weeks — 3 evenings a week — 2 hours each evening)

Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
10 wks–60 hrs	10 wks–60 hrs	10 wks–60 hrs	10 wks–60 hrs
Elementary	Intermediate	Advanced	Special

Unit 1 ELEMENTARY BOOKKEEPING: (60 hours)

General theory syllabus.

1. The nature and origin of business transactions.
2. The necessity for keeping books.
3. Principles of debit and credit.
4. Use of the following original entry books:
   - *a*. Journal.
   - *b*. Cash book.
   - *c*. Sales journal.
   - *d*. Purchase journal.
5. Posting to the ledger.
6. Making trial balance:
   - *a*. Using totals.
   - *b*. Using balances.
7. Making statements:
   - *a*. Profit and loss.
   - *b*. Assets and liabilities.
8. Closing the ledger.

9. Business forms:
   a. Invoice.
   b. Receipt.
   c. Check.
   d. Note.
   e. Orders.
   f. Monthly statements.
   g. Power of attorney.
   h. Draft.

UNIT 2 INTERMEDIATE BOOKKEEPING: (60 hours)

Syllabus:

Application of fundamental principles to single proprietorship business.

1. Business narrative containing a rather complete series of transactions for testing ability to apply principles taught through the medium of the drill exercises used in the First Unit.
2. Business practice narrative using the business forms already taught — both incoming and outgoing.
3. Use of special columns through simple exercises or by analysis of narrative already used. The following special columns may be used in the cash book at first:
   a. Expense.
   b. Furniture and fixtures.
   c. Notes receivable.
   d. Notes payable.

   The only purpose of this work is to teach the underlying principle of the special column.
4. Use of auxiliary ledgers and consequent special columns, controlling accounts, etc. Exercises that lend themselves to class instruction should be used.
5. Business narrative, with or without business forms, according to class needs, to review the use of special columns and auxiliary ledgers.

UNIT 3 ADVANCED BOOKKEEPING: (60 hours)

Syllabus:

Application of fundamental principles to joint proprietorships.

1. Partnership ownership taught through text material and exercises.

2. Business narrative for the purpose of fixing the principles taught.
3. Corporation ownership taught through text material and exercises.
4. Business narrative for the purpose of fixing principles taught.

UNIT 4 SPECIAL SYSTEMS: (60 hours)

Syllabus:

Special lines of business — select one:

1. Retail business:
   a. Small retail store.
   b. Large retail store.
2. Wholesale business:
   a. Grocery.
   b. Hardware.
   c. Drygoods.
   d. Drugs.
3. Commission business:
   a. Produce.
4. Manufacturing business:
   a. Shoes.
   b. Clothing.
   c. Furniture.
5. Banking business.
6. Transportation business.
7. Other lines of business according to demand.

If a group large enough for any one of these lines can be secured it can be handled as one class, but individual instruction will probably prevail in this unit owing to the diversity of needs represented.

SHORTHAND — FIRST YEAR

UNIT 1	UNIT 2
20 wks. — 120 hrs.	20 wks. — 120 hrs.
Principles	Dictation to 70 words

UNIT 1 PRINCIPLES OF SHORTHAND: (120 hours)

1. Presentation of lessons.
2. Practice on lesson material.

3. Review class drill.
4. Home preparation, and essential practice.

UNIT 2 DICTATION TO 70 WORDS A MINUTE: (120 hours)

1. Review of principles.
2. Speed drill:
   a. Practiced matter.
   b. New matter.
3. Practice on letters.
4. Practice on solid matter.

SHORTHAND — SECOND YEAR

UNIT 3	UNIT 4
20 wks. — 120 hrs.	20 wks. — 120 hrs.
Dictation to 100 words	Dictation to 125 words

UNIT 3 DICTATION TO 100 WORDS A MINUTE: (120 hours).

1. Review of principles.
2. Speed drill:
   a. Practice matter.
   b. Repeated matter.
   c. New matter.
3. Transcription of notes on machine.
4. Spelling and word study as required.

UNIT 4 DICTATION TO 125 WORDS A MINUTE: (120 hours)

1. Speed drill:
   a. Repeated matter.
   b. New matter.
2. Transcription of notes on the machine.
3. Secretarial and reporting practice.
4. Special vocabulary drill.

NOTE. — Units arranged in accordance with the suggestion above will not only meet the needs of those who wish to take

up shorthand from the beginning and prepare for stenographic work, but also those who have had some training in this subject. Such students may take any one of the units for which they are prepared. Almost no stenographer is beyond the need of training such as is suggested in one or more of the above units.

BUSINESS CORRESPONDENCE

(40 weeks — 3 evenings a week — 1 hour each evening)

Unit 1	Unit 2
20 wks. — 60 hrs.	20 wks. — 60 hrs.
Elementary	Advanced

Unit 1 ELEMENTARY BUSINESS CORRESPONDENCE: (60 hours)

1. Postal information.
2. Letter forms.
3. Parts of a letter.
4. Addressing envelopes.
5. Titles of courtesy, etc.
6. Copying letters.
7. Practice in writing:
   - *a.* Letters ordering goods.
   - *b.* Letters acknowledging orders.
   - *c.* Letters of application.
   - *d.* Letters accompanying remittances.
   - *e.* Letters of introduction.
   - *f.* Letters of recommendation.
   - *g.* Simple letters asking favors.
   - *h.* Simple letters asking for remittances.
   - *i.* Simple sales letters.

Unit 2 ADVANCED BUSINESS CORRESPONDENCE: (60 hours)

1. Analysis of business letters that have been used in business.
2. Practice in writing:
   - *a.* Sales letters.
   - *b.* Credit letters.

c. Collection letters.
d. Form letters.
e. Circular letters.
f. Letters of complaint.
g. Letters refusing to grant requests.
h. General adjustment letters.

3. Dictating letters.
4. Handling of correspondence.
5. Filing systems.

NOTE. — Younger students who want some letter-writing practice usually need the simpler type of work covered in unit 1. This course may be taken with Fundamentals in Business English, or with Business Composition according to the previous education of the student. Unit 2 will appeal to high grade stenographers, secretaries and young business people generally. For most young executives, except in the sales department, it is a better course than the usual salesmanship course.

APPENDIX B

EVENING SCHOOL "SHORT UNIT" COURSE IN RETAIL SELLING[1]

[1] Boston, Massachusetts.

Lesson I

Discussion of meaning of salesmanship.
Responsibility of position of sales person:
A. Take place of firm in meeting customers.
B. Maintain reputation of store.
C. Give standards of service for new people entering employ of store.
D. Build up reputation of store for honest representation of merchandise.
E. Sales person makes original record of all business.
F. Maintain dignity of profession of selling.

Lesson II

Salesmanship — giving service to every customer who comes into the store.
Service to customer begins by —
Approaching customer.
How should you receive your customer?
A. Being a hostess in the store the sales person should welcome customer by:
1. Personal appearance.
2. Tone of voice.
3. Facial expression inspired by right feeling.
4. Good manners.

Expressions used in approaching customers.
  Discussion.
Purpose of these expressions.
Means of strengthening approach:
  A. Being able to address the customer by name.
  B. Knowing customer's peculiar interests.
  C. Knowing peculiarities of customer's build.
Importance of approach.
  First impression.

Lesson III

Demonstration sale.

Lesson IV

Reasons for stress upon the importance of approach to customer.
  Discussion of personal feeling when a sales person has lacked interest in you or has been over-anxious to serve you.
Effect of poor approach upon—
  A. Customer.
  B. Store.
  C. Sales person.
Results of good approach:
  A. On customers.
    Feel at home in store and with you, therefore mind free to consider merchandise.
  B. On store.
    Holds old trade and builds up new through satisfied customers.
  C. On sales person.
    1. Customer often buys more than intended to.
    2. Customer returns to you and sends her friends.
Last part of approach to customer is showing merchandise.
Meaning of term "Talking up merchandise."
  A. To explain points about the merchandise.
  B. Object: To interest customer and make her desire to possess the things shown.
  C. To increase salability.

Lesson V

Points which a sales person needs to know in order to be able to talk up her merchandise.

A. Quality of material.

B. Durability.

C. Laundrying qualities.
Directions for washing materials.

D. Color.
1. Becomingness.
2. Appropriateness for purpose.
3. Popularity.

E. Style.
1. Suitability to figure.
2. Suitability for use.
3. Extreme or conservative.
4. Reproduction of imported or American.

F. Workmanship.
1. Machine or hand made.
2. Finish.

G. Labels.
1. Meaning and significance of labels and trade names.
2. Consumers' League.
3. Onyx, etc.

Lesson VI

Demonstration sale: Handling more than one customer at a time

Lesson VII

Special facts about merchandise which will interest customers.

A. History of article.
Where and when manufactured.

B. Processes in manufacture.

C. Names of material and why so named.

D. Advance fashion features.

As knowledge of merchandise is essential in selling it, where can you gain such knowledge?

A. From buyers, assistant buyers, and floor managers.

B. From other sales people.
C. From customers.
D. From personal experience.
E. Trade magazines.
F. Advertisements.
G. Store windows.
Aids in talking up merchandise.
Ability to use descriptive adjectives.
Discussion of expressions used.
Work out list of adjectives.

Lesson VIII

Suggestive selling.
Advantage to store; merchandise which may be suggested when consumer buys articles, such as suit, etc.
Substitution in merchandise.
Why necessary?
Value of honesty.
Attitude toward —
A. Customer returning merchandise.
B. Customer who wants samples.
C. Customer who desires to look further before deciding.
D. Customer who wishes to be directed.
E. Customer having some deformity.
F. Aged customer.
G. Timid customer.
H. Child sent to do errand.
I. Customer who comes at closing time.

Lesson IX

Demonstration sale.

Lesson X

Closing the sale commences when customer shows preference.
Analysis of closing.
Narrowing the sale.
Why are sales lost?
A. Too much merchandise shown.

B. Too little merchandise shown.
C. Wrong talking points used.
D. Too much talking.
E. Stock in poor condition.
F. Indifference of sales person.
G. Interruption.

Study your lost sales, also your successful ones.

Sales slip.
Making out.
Method of verifying address.

Courtesy after sale is completed.
A. Do not lose interest.
B. Entertain her while she is waiting for change and purchase.
C. Assist in putting on wraps.
D. Thank customer.

Importance of successful closing of a sale.
A. To store.
B. To sales person.
C. To customer.

APPENDIX C

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